The Nation.

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The Week.

In selecting ex-Senator Henry G. Davis for the Vice-Presidency the Democratic Convention chose a candidate who should not have been considered, because of his age—eighty-one years. This fact despite his being phenomenally vigorous and active, must overshadow his undoubted abilities and his very honorable career. Had the party insisted upon the use of Judson Harmon's name he must have listened to its call, and in him the country would have recognized a man of honor, integrity, and soundness of view, in every way fit to succeed to the Presidency in the event of the election of Judge Parker and himself. Were Mr. Davis twenty years younger, his selection would have been hailed as fresh proof of the complete convalescence of the Democrats. The campaign will, however, not hinge upon the question of his age, however much Republican newspapers and orators may harp upon it. It must not be overlooked that the existing law in regard to the succession to the Presidency makes such a mistake of judgment less serious than it would have been some years ago. In case of the death of both Mr. Parker and Mr. Davis while in office—a hitherto unheard-of contingency—the Presidency would be assumed by the Secretary of State, and this fact would doubtless be considered by Judge Parker if called upon to select a Cabinet. Looked at purely from the politician's point of view, there can be no doubt that the addition of this octogenarian railroad man to the ticket will insure the return of Maryland and West Virginia to the Democratic column.

Unquestionably the highest tribute to Judge Parker is that paid him by our old stalwart Republican neighbor, the New York *Tribune*. We do not refer to its spontaneous admiration of Sunday, when it declared that his stand did "signal credit to the firmness and courage of his public character," and stated that Judge Parker "is widely respected in this State for the conspicuous ability he has shown in politics and on the bench, and for the purity and integrity of his private life." These phrases, like its opinion that the St. Louis message could surprise no one familiar with the Judge's "honorable achievements and honorable record," were doubtless merely the unpremeditated compliments of the frank mind ever to be expected of the early-morning leader writer. But, after sleeping on the matter, the *Tribune's* sages arrived at a sober second thought. They declared on Monday that the Judge "played a shrewd game of politics" to win an "improbable if not impossible nomination," and "cannot concede that the final dramatic act in a skilful performance entitles him to be acclaimed as a man of heroic mould." If this is an excellent rebuke of its own previous enthusiasm, it is also the plainest possible proof of the stunning effects of the Parker bombshell upon the Republican camp. It will undoubtedly take some days for the party to realize that the foremost figure in American politics is to-day residing not at Oyster Bay, but at Esopus.

Let us see—did not the Republican Convention also receive a telegram from its candidate? Oh, yes; it was that heroic, that dazzling and sublime message: "Perdicaris alive or Raisuli dead." Judge Parker, Judge Parker, how could you! You gave the real thing and left Roosevelt only the fustian. The telegram from Esopus killed more things than the silver issue. It did to death all the mock-heroics, all the clap-trap, all the loud boasting with which the only brave and truly terrible candidate was to split the ears of the groundlings. "Raisuli dead," indeed! Well, he is already the deadest thing the Republican campaigners have got in their extensive mortuary collection.

The real conviction of the Democrats was shown when John Sharp Williams asked the St. Louis Convention if there was a man there who believed that silver was a live issue. There was not one affirmative response. The delegates from the South might rage over the Parker telegram as an unprecedented proceeding, but over the subject-matter of the dispatch they could not get excited. The South has no desire for any standard but the present. Along with the rest of the country it was poor in 1896, and on the say-so of the Bryanites fancied that free silver would make it rich. The end, not the means, was what it cared for, and the end has been attained. What the South really wanted was a big bank account, and that it has acquired in the last few years, especially since last fall. Checks and drafts are now seen to be just as good and efficient as silver. Free silver could not have made that section any more prosperous than it is to-day, and in view of that fact the Democrats south of Mason and Dixon's line are not going to get excited over Judge Parker's gold-standard telegram. They are, in fact, hailing it as the utterance of a strong and brave man.

Mr. Williams, by the way, is historically accurate in saying that the price of wheat was the chief cause of McKinley's election in 1896. The average price of No. 2 red winter wheat in 1891 was $1.094, from which it declined to less than 51 cents on December 1, 1895. What more was needed to drive the farmers to Populism? Loaded with debt, and barely able, in cases without number, to provide their families with the mere necessaries, they were in a mood to welcome any kind of change. But in 1896 a remarkable transformation occurred in their condition. A great shortage developed in the wheat crop of Australia, Argentina, Russia, India, and other countries. In India there was an actual famine, and wheat had to be imported. Our crop of 1896 hit the market just at the right time. Long before election day the farmer began to see the end of the troubles which had been afflicting him for years, and also to discover that Bryan's "twin" theory for wheat and silver was nonsense. On December 1, 1896, wheat was worth 72.6 cents; a year later it was quoted at 80.8 cents. With half our population thrust suddenly into such prosperity, an industrial and speculative "boom" was inevitable. It is worth noting, however, that while in those days Providence was giving us prosperity, President McKinley was sending the Wolcott commission over Europe to see what could be done for silver.

Every one who remembers the keen political excitement over the wheat crop prospects in the autumn of 1896, and the rapid rise in price, will admit that harvest developments have some bearing on a Presidential contest. Their significance, however, is not always the same. In the majority of cases abundant crops are a help to the canvass of the party already in office—this on the general principle that all pleasant occurrences will be more or less blindly associated with the ruling powers. But the "wheat boom" of 1896 was not in this category; the Opposition claimed it as an argument for their campaign, and the erudite Mr. Bryan, it will be recalled, threw out dark hints that Wall Street was "putting up the price of wheat" in order to embarrass his plans. So far as indications go at this early date, there will be somewhat similar perplexity in reasoning from this year's crops to their political effect. The one salient fact in the harvest outlook is the extraordinary promise of the cotton crop.

Last week's monthly Government estimate of that crop, following June's estimate of a 10 per cent. larger acreage than last year's and a 9 per cent. better condition, showed the average condition to have further improved 5 per cent. If

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this promise is made good by the season's later developments, a cotton crop larger by three-quarters of a million bales than any hitherto picked in the United States might be expected. To predict it thus early in the season would be rash, but it is still a chance to be reckoned with. Supposing a "bumper crop," however, at a time when the world's existing supplies are at a minimum, how should the outcome affect the political campaign? It will hardly be supposed that Texas, Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, and the Carolinas will be swept from their Democratic moorings. Doubtless, resumption of work next autumn at mills which have shut down because of inadequate supplies would serve to help the Administration party; but here the resultant benefit falls chiefly to Massachusetts, to whose Presidential vote the Democrats have not yet aspired. There is one respect, however, in which the promised additional prosperity to the Southern planter will unquestionably affect the entire political situation, as it has been already affected by the prolonged prosperity of the grain belt. It will be the *coup de grâce* of the free-silver and cheap-money agitation.

From sources different as the independent Kansas City *Star* and the thick-and-thin Republican *Globe-Democrat* of St. Louis, comes the warning that Mr. Folk is to become the victim of the ring of boodlers that has ruled Missouri for so many years. The *Star* has observed a movement on the part of the Butler organization to make terms with the Republican party and accomplish the defeat of Folk at the polls. The "great opportunity" of the Republicans, which has been the subject of party essays, is taken to mean simply that the minority may combine with the anti-Folk Democrats. Butler is reported to be willing to tolerate the devil of Republican rule rather than fall into the deep sea of Democratic oblivion in the event of Folk's victory. The *Globe-Democrat* does not hint that any combination is to be made to defeat Folk, but it points out that the machine will, in the event of Democratic success, either capture Folk or make his term in office one long and futile contest with a State organization controlled by the old gang. Two State conventions have been held for the nomination of judicial officers and the selection of delegates to the National Democratic Convention—and the ring has easily dominated them both. The third, to be held on July 19, when Folk's nomination for Governor will be made, is expected to follow in the track of the others in endorsing and praising the State Administrations during the last thirty years. It is evident that Folk's fight is only beginning.

That the courts below Mason and Dixon's line may in the long run be depended upon to do justice to the negro appears from a recent decision of Judge Emory Speer of the United States District Court of Georgia. A colored man accused of disorderly conduct was twice sentenced for the same offence, by a police justice in Macon, Georgia, to seven months on the chain gang. Judge Speer, while declaring that it was not a color-line case, ordered the man released because of his having been punished without due process of law. That a color question was injected appears from the contention of the city of Macon that, while the penalty would be an infamous one for a white man, it could not hurt a negro's standing! To this Judge Speer replied with spirit: "Such considerations do not appeal to a court charged with the equal enforcement of the law. Nor do I believe they meet the approbation of the best people of the Southern States. Nor are such sentiments conducive to our welfare or hopeful for our future." Another cheering sign is the address made at the recent Democratic Convention in North Carolina by the retiring Governor Aycock, which the Raleigh *Biblical Recorder* characterizes as the noblest of his fine life. In it he defends his incessant championship of the new educational movement for negroes as well as whites, for which he had been bitterly attacked. In speaking of the negro, the Governor reminded his audience that the white men had taken charge of him and his destinies, and therefore must deal justly by him and make the most of him. He declared that the Almighty will not tolerate a people who, having power over a weaker race, will not protect it.

The Manila *Times* has little patience with the American college professors who are asking for the independence of the Philippines. This demand, it says, is not based on knowledge, but is a "misguided sentiment." And yet the college professors are not so very different from the *Times*. The latter says: "If the petitioners would really serve the Filipino people, let them press the demand of the islands for laws that will give commercial autonomy, instead of permitting the islands to be held at arm's length and throttled by a prohibitive tariff." Indeed, our transpacific contemporary gets fairly hot in talking about the "serious disappointment to all true friends of the Philippines" which has resulted from our five years' rule. The last session of Congress, it declares, was one of temporizing toward the archipelago, President Roosevelt "leading the van in passive submission to a do-nothing policy." In the face of a "bluff and bluster" many had hoped for better results. When the Manila *Times* talks of "a law that has throttled the products of the island for five years, that has been pronounced to be vicious and unwise by the most competent authority," it comes pretty near furnishing the college professors all the facts they need for renewed efforts in behalf of Filipino independence. The people of the islands, it seems, have placed too much reliance on "honeyed words"; in this way they have been "lulled to sleep." But if they are intelligent enough for the difficult task of "commercial autonomy," should they not be able to take care of themselves politically?

Licensed to carry 1,800 passengers, with lifeboat and raft accommodations for 247—this is the condition of affairs revealed by the reëxamination of the excursion steamer *Cepheus*. So far as could be observed, the ship's equipment was in excellent condition, although the inspectors did not insist upon the actual lowering of the lifeboats. Nor can it be alleged that the owners of the *Cepheus* were violating existing law in having so few boats. Indeed, she has more than are required by the Treasury rules approved in February, 1903. The question which arises is not an easy one to settle. Shall excursion steamers and ocean liners be compelled to furnish a seat in a boat for every passenger? At present there is no steamer afloat which even pretends to do this. Take the case of the *Oregon*, for instance. She sank hours after being struck, in broad daylight. There was perfect order and discipline. Yet many of her passengers and crew must have drowned had not outside aid come in the nick of time. As it is, many officers of steamships declare that it is impossible for excursion boats or liners to give up the requisite space to carry sufficient boats and rafts for all, and that any law requiring this would be an unnecessary hardship.

Here is a matter of world-wide importance which should be settled as soon as possible in some authoritative way. Must a large part of those who go down to the sea in ships be prepared to drown in case of accident? If so, it should be known, and travellers should begin to imitate the Japanese disregard of death. If it is possible to carry a sufficient number of collapsible boats and rafts to accommodate the legal number of passengers and the crew, the public should know it, and our inspection laws be so amended as to require every boat to come up to the standard. There are, of course, certain kinds of casualties—like collision at sea in a severe storm—where loss of life is inevitable. But, none the less, nothing should be left undone to prevent the repetition of such disasters as the recent ones and to reduce the loss of life to a minimum. It would seem as if this were a great chance for the United States to do a really humanitar-

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ian work and to set an example to other nations. Why should not the Secretary of Commerce appoint a committee of naval officers and marine experts to consider the question? It must be remembered that all improvements in the treatment of crews and passengers have been brought about only by legislative action. The abuse of seamen, the overcrowding of vessels, and their overloading were all stopped by this or that Congress or Parliament. The next step would seem to be the rigid safeguarding of the lives of passengers.

The Canadian Finance Minister will have a better knowledge of Yankee ingenuity after he has experimented a while with his anti-dumping policy. He says he will not let our goods be sold across the border for less than their market price in this country, but the Canadian manufacturers have not in the least ceased worrying over the situation. They have got wind of the fact that American firms are preparing to send their surplus goods into the Dominion at regular market invoices, and to employ salaried dealers there to sell them at slaughter prices. An Ottawa wholesale merchant, for instance, has just received four circular letters from manufacturers in the United States, who intimate that they will invoice goods into Canada at our prices and pay him for handling them a salary equal to the return obtained by American dealers. If German or British manufacturers should attempt to get their goods into the United States in such ways as this, we should regard it as a dirty trick. But in the present case it is only an evidence of legitimate enterprise and national shrewdness.

The preliminary figures of the Canadian Finance Minister for the fiscal year just ended show how far the Dominion has lagged behind this country in entering hard times. The total revenue is estimated at about $71,000,000, and the expenditures at about $54,500,000, leaving a surplus of $16,500,000. This is the largest revenue ever shown, and gains are recorded in nearly every department. Since 1899, in fact, there has been an increase in receipts of nearly 55 per cent., with no set-backs. On the other hand, expenses show an advance of only 30 per cent. Contrast this with our ups and downs. Since 1899, both in receipts and expenditures, Canada has had a boom, but, notwithstanding certain speculative collapses, her industrial situation is still an active one. Can it be that a lower tariff has had a healthier effect on Canadian finance than that produced by the Dingley law?

Mr. Balfour is not the only Premier who has been "booed" in the Commons; Mr. Gladstone occasionally had that misfortune. But Mr. Balfour can very ill afford to be shouted down; it is the sign of his waning popularity. Mr. Gladstone was frankly detested by the Tories; Mr. Balfour has enjoyed a singular personal popularity among the Liberals. Sacrificing that, not very much is left of him. It was the application of closure to the Licensing Bill which brought on the uproar on July 6. Undoubtedly there is a real feeling of outrage among the Opposition. Mr. Balfour has introduced a very radical and highly contentious matter, and declines to allow it to be properly debated. People see that, except for the need of placating "the trade" before the elections, there is no reason why the Licensing Bill should be made an urgent measure. In forcing it down the throat of Parliament, Mr. Balfour has done much to diminish that personal respect which has carried him over many rough places. Politically, he has fallen very low, lacking even the loyalty of his reluctant majority. His brave words that he will live out the year unless beaten earlier, seem the expression of a man who has made officeholding his highest good. It was some such sense that the politician had superseded the delightful gentleman and philosopher which provoked if it did not wholly justify the recent tumult.

The original surmise as to why the British expedition went to Tibet receives confirmation from the reply to the courteously apprehensive questions addressed by our State Department to the British Foreign Office. It was not a veiled attempt at land-grabbing, strategically begun when Russia's hands were full, but simply a display of force to save the pride of Viceroy Curzon, who thought his deputations to the Tibetans had not been welcomed with appropriate consideration. It is doubtless difficult for the Western mind to appreciate duly the importance of impressing with a show of force the imagination of Orientals, if they are to be kept in due subjection. But while allowance must be made for "ways that are not as our ways," the "fuss and feathers" part of governing alien races might be confined to territory which these races actually inhabit. The Tibetans, with their passion for isolation, might remain as unknown and as blameless as the Homeric Ethiopians, if the Viceroy's officials on the Indian frontier would only let them alone. If they must be objectively impressed with the worshipful character of Lord Curzon, the old-fashioned plan of Gessler in the Swiss cantons would seem to be a much more humane device than slaughtering a few thousand ill-armed peasants and razing a jong. The disclaimer by Downing Street of anything that savors of impairing the integrity of China is followed by the somewhat naïve statement that, provided the Tibetans comply with their invaders' demands, the British will be only too ready to retire, since they are now satisfied from their own experience that the topography of the country amply protects it against Russian encroachments.

The process of benevolent assimilation goes bravely on in the Dutch East India possessions. The official record of Atcheenese "assimilated" in the last two battles is as follows:

Women killed	310
Children killed	218
Men killed	558
Wounded (not classified)	103
Captured (not classified)	45
Total	1,234

Details of this kind that may serve to encourage the patriotic love of war ought to be rigorously exacted of colonial governors. Since Dean Swift published his satire entitled "A Modest Proposal" for alleviating the woes of Ireland, nothing more brutal and gruesome than this laconic dispatch has ever been given publicity. It is also worthy of remark that this recent horror is not merely one of the inevitable but regrettable incidents of initiating a policy of colonial conquest. For three-quarters of a century has this guerrilla warfare in the Dutch colonial empire been in progress. It demonstrates sufficiently that the purpose of the Dutch is a war of extermination, and that they are willing in a brazen-faced way to make frank avowal of their intentions.

Through the taking of Kaiping (Kaichow) is minimized in the Russian dispatches, it is probable that there has been considerable fighting at that point, with serious losses on either side. Even a "strategic retreat" of 30,000 troops hard pressed by 60,000 can hardly have been conducted during three days with a mere handful of casualties. The possession of Kaiping leaves the Japanese free to move along the Liao-tung Gulf towards Yinkow—a movement that has already begun. Nodzu, on the road from Siuyen to Ta-che-kiao, is in a position to strike the retreating Russian columns, and to support Oku's further advance. Indeed, there are unconfirmed rumors that fighting has taken place near Ta-che-kiao. In any case, the Russians plainly must withdraw to Haicheng, where, in view of Kuroki's flanking positions on the Liaoyang road, they will be none too safe. Very soon one may expect to hear of transports off Yinkow. The landing of a strong force there would assure complete control of the coast and an admirable base. It would round out the most important operations of the war since the first attack on the Russian fleet. From Port Arthur comes only doubtful news—enough, however, to show that the Japanese are steadily driving the garrison in upon the city.

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A MAN AT LAST.

A real man appeared above the American horizon on Sunday. Judge Parker had been represented as a veiled candidate; but at an intensely dramatic moment the curtain was dropped, and he was revealed as a figure of heroic proportions. Bryan had jeered at him as an interrogation-point, but it was another sort of point—the very tip of Ithuriel's spear—which pierced Bryanism to the heart when the Judge wrote his astounding, his exhilarating, his conquering telegram. Such clear and shining courage has not been seen in a Presidential candidate since Charles Francis Adams wrote, "Take me out of that crowd." In Judge Parker's person the man who would rather be right than President exists anew. Taking his political life in his hands, Alton B. Parker put away the Presidency unless it were offered to him on terms squaring with his own convictions. No wonder the country was thrilled. No wonder that Europe rubbed its eyes. A man had risen, towering above the puny politicians.

With no armor but his honest thought, no skill but simple faith, Parker quietly acted as an honorable gentleman. But what amaze he struck into the hearts of all the professional politicians! A plain citizen saying in plain language that he declined a Presidential nomination already made, unless his convictions and his honor were cleared—incredible! The telegram must be a forgery. Even the Associated Press questioned it. Nobody at St. Louis would believe it genuine till verified. Hill's first cry was, "Suppress it." As well try to suppress Pike's Peak. A man had stood forth. A "mystery," Senator Beveridge had sneeringly called him; the real mystery is why the expert and tortuous politicians do not yet, any more than in Burke's day, know their own trade. They plot and burrow and crawl and sneak and compromise, when along comes an unknown man with a clear gray eye and a square jaw, and, by one honest word, shatters their machinations, and leaves them covered with mortification and ridicule. It is bravery's simple gravitation drawing the whole world again.

Judge Parker's calmly heroic act burst so startlingly upon the country, was so bold in conception and so triumphant in execution, and was such an overpowering revelation of character, that we may not perceive at first how great a public benefit it wrought. It drove the last nail into the coffin of free silver. Better than an act of Congress does it establish the gold standard beyond cavil or dispute. The business world at last emerges from its long dread. Let the campaign run its course; let the tariff and taxation and Imperialism be discussed—in no event does the stability of our financial system hang upon the event. Judge Parker has removed the last doubt. Try as the Republicans may, they cannot flog that dead issue along the road.

One courageous utterance has instantaneously and magically changed the whole aspect of the campaign. It has transformed dejection into the highest hopes. To-day, it is the Republican party that is thrown into confusion. It sees its guns spiked and its ammunition hurled into Esopus Creek. The plan of campaign over which it was gloating, it already has to abandon. To talk one word more about danger to the gold standard would be to excite derision. And how about that other fond charge that Parker is "Hill's man"? Who could breathe that in the future? Look at Hill, rolled in the dust at St. Louis, and ask if that Liliputian will ever undertake to bind the mighty thews of the man who openly discomfited him. Let no Republican orator who does not wish to get himself hooted dare henceforth revive the slander that Judge Parker will be dominated by Hill. And note, too, the splendid guarantee we have that the man who, while only a candidate, could so nobly defy "pressure," would stand immovably for his convictions once elected President.

We suspect that the Republicans will not hereafter be so eager to challenge comparison of personalities. It appears that your charging colonels are not the only ones in whom civic courage may be bred. That product seems to thrive even better on the banks of the Hudson than on San Juan Hill. Woe to the Republican orator who ventures a rhetorical question—"Who is the candidate who thinks with lightning swiftness in an emergency, who takes counsel only of his own courage, who puts his political life at hazard, and does big things which set the country ringing?" The answer would come back like the sound of many waters, "Parker!" Honor bright, you lauders of Theodore Roosevelt, can you point to an act in his public career which shows anything approximating the moral courage displayed by Judge Parker on Saturday?

Such an exhibition of sheer manhood makes all parties kin. Republicans know a man when they see him, and thousands of them are to-day applauding the Democrat of whom they were preparing to speak slightingly. Judge Parker has inspired multitudes who had thought that nothing in politics could ever cause them to become enthusiastic again. Everywhere one encounters the thrill. "We have a man. We have a leader." Already it is plain that the kindling hope and zeal put into the hearts of young men by Grover Cleveland are to be renewed under the inspiration of Judge Parker's leadership. At the first flash of his sword his party is marvellously heartened, the Republicans correspondingly dismayed. But it is, after all, the personal more than the political aspect of Judge Parker's magnificent act that we wish most to emphasize to-day. He has given fresh hope to America. Democratic government wears a fairer face for the discovery of such civic virtue as his held in reserve for the day of great need. Judge Parker has removed a reproach not only from his party, but from his country. Too many were saying of the United States, as Disraeli did of France, that it had its chassepot and its mitrailleuse, but "of that third engine, called a man, it did not possess a single specimen." To-day we can point to the man, so towering that England sees and salutes him, so modest and unpretentious and simply courageous that his fellow-countrymen are rejoicing in him as in a new national possession.

> "Brave men are born into the land,
> And whence, the foolish do not know."

THE DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION.

Ineptitude is the word that best characterizes the St. Louis convention. The continual uproar over a comparatively unknown candidate, the combination of senseless din in debate with sheer timidity in the votes—all these features of the gathering show the ineffectiveness of national conventions as at present organized. To-day we face this dilemma—a convention absolutely boss-ridden and farcical, or one delivered to the mercy of the galleries, the sharp practice of the wire-pullers, and the caprice of the rank and file of delegates. In either case the result expresses anything but the will of the party, and to-day the Democratic platform represents fairly neither branch of the Democracy. The trouble is that the attempt to float a candidate on sheer shouting affects all the deliberations of a national convention. The delegates are subject to irrational panic and to equally irrational enthusiasms. Disorder is infectious, and no other sort of deliberative body would so much as attempt to do business under the conditions of pandemonium such as prevailed at St. Louis. The situation calls loudly for reform. Conventions should be restricted to their own members, which would permit at least a semblance of debate and respect for parliamentary procedure. As things stand, it is difficult to say which is the more astounding spectacle—the emptiness of the cut-and-dried proceedings at Chicago or the bedlam at St. Louis.

Hill's crass mismanagement of the situation at St. Louis was only what might have been expected. To entrust to him any cause in which principles or morals are involved, is to invite betrayal. He was the last man to send into conference over the money plank with Mr. Bryan. That bold and fertile Robe-

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spierre of the party was sure to daunt and defeat its most arrant truckler and coward. The result gives the country the full measure of Hill as a man and a professed leader. With more than two-thirds of the Convention ready to support him, he allowed himself to be frightened into surrender to less than one-third. The blunder of putting him on the Committee on Resolutions to stand for the gold plank was fatal. A real man in his clothes would have stood till doomsday before yielding to the impudent and destructive demands of a confessed minority, and suffering the platform to be silent on the currency.

Amid all the sound and fury of the Convention, one fact stands out clear: a convulsed party is casting out Bryanism. Mr. Bryan chose his battleground most adroitly. He had a much stronger case in contesting the Illinois delegation than he could have upon any financial issue. There seems to be no question that the Hopkins machine in Illinois had been brutally high-handed in its manipulation of delegates. Mr. Bryan was able to secure support, in his contention, from several States whose votes were pledged to Parker. Yet, even so, he could not muster one-third of the Convention. In other words, on a test vote shrewdly forced by him, he simply demonstrated that his power even as an obstructionist is gone. More than two-thirds of the Convention was against the Bryan-Hearst alliance.

Chairman Williams's "keynote" speech at the opening had some highly effective passages. Being in the nature of a rejoinder to Mr. Root and a dissection of the Republican platform, it necessarily lacked a continuity of rhetorical sweep. In this respect it suffers by comparison with Mr. Root's speech. Mr. Williams is too much subdued to the manner of the House of Representatives to omit personal retorts or to cultivate a concise style. Still, on the main questions at issue between the two parties, he was acute, able, and convincing. He had this great advantage over Mr. Root, in the controverted positions about the tariff and finance, that the truth of history was on his side. Mr. Williams could afford to concede the rhetoric if granted the facts.

In his lancing of Republican tergiversations about the tariff, Mr. Williams showed how completely the party is at the mercy of private interests. But in what he had to say on the subject of negro disfranchisement, he went even further in taunting it with being hopelessly commercialized. He asserted that the plank in the Republican platform calling upon Congress to inquire into the conditions of the suffrage in the South was the emptiest sham, and that the Republicans would dare do nothing effective in behalf of the political rights of the negro. Why? Because "business" is everything. The South would make the "mercantile class" of the North suffer; therefore the Republicans will not stir in the negro's cause. In saying this, Mr. Williams is only echoing what the Southern press is filled with. The same arguments are employed that Northern doughfaces used to be plied with in slavery days. "The South is the best customer of Northern factories," and so on. And who is the Republican to resent the imputation and take up the challenge? Not Secretary Hay. He has just said at Jackson that the Republican party in its beginnings was willing to put "questions of finance, of political economy, out of sight for the moment," in order to devote itself to the great cause of human rights; but he ventures no hint that the party is ready to do that to-day.

The platform, as adopted, is, like most human things—and nothing is more "human" than a party platform—a mixed product, often admirable, frequently timid, in spots strong, in places weak. Its general doctrine of government is unexceptionable. "Local self-government" is insisted upon as the distinctive feature and great strength of the American system. The demand of the platform for strict economy and for retrenchment in governmental expenditures, to the end of lightening taxes, goes well with its promise of removing tariff burdens in order to aid industry and prevent the oppression of the consumer. In regard to tariff revision and Trusts, the platform roars gently. Greater energy and explicitness would have carried more conviction, and we should have hailed a determined and definite pledge to repeal specified duties that bear with gross injustice upon the people. Naming schedules and promising repeal would not have been out of place, though, we admit, most unusual, in a platform. Still, there is the precise undertaking to do away with all tariff bulwarks behind which hide monopoly and discrimination against American purchasers, and the avowal of the general principle that the only warrant for laying tariff taxes, as all others, is the need of raising revenue to carry on the government.

The deliverances on the civil service are more emphatic and satisfactory than we have had from the Democratic party in recent years. It declares itself committed to "the principles of civil-service reform," and calls for their "honest, just, and impartial enforcement." And the Philippine Independence Committee, turned away empty-handed by the Republican Convention, had its petition granted at St. Louis. The platform proposes to "set the Filipino people upon their feet, free and independent, to work out their own destiny." According to Secretary Taft, that will give joy to "agitators" in the Philippines; but will it not also give joy to the 10,000 petitioners, including the most distinguished names in America, who asked that such a promise might be made? The "party of intelligence" rejected this appeal of American intelligence. The Democrats did not think so meanly of the lights in our universities, nor of our judges and clergymen and philanthropists.

As an extract from a stump speech, the reference to the race question in the Democratic platform would read very well. As a plank, it is feeble enough. Although the Southerners had more influence in this convention than in any held for years past, the party did not dare come out openly for the repression and disfranchisement of the negro. Knowing that any other course would put the strongest kind of weapon into the hands of their opponents, they confined themselves to vague generalities which may mean anything or nothing, and expressed their deprecating views in the language of a village orator. We doubt very much whether the Southern press will like this appeal to the country to share the burden of this problem fraternally, for Southern editors have generally insisted upon being allowed to settle the "peculiar" question for themselves, without interference from North, East, or West. For this recognition that the issue is a national one we should be duly thankful, as well as for the dropping of the plank suggested by Chairman Williams, which would have been a far greater menace to national concord than the utterance of the Republican platform upon this question.

ARMY PROMOTIONS ONCE MORE.

The retirement last week of Brig.-Gen. Peter C. Hains has given the Administration another opportunity to promote and retire as brigadier-generals officers whom it deems worthy of this honor. It has therefore selected for advancement one colonel, four lieutenant-colonels and a major—the latter of only twenty-five years' service. Their claims for this distinction vary from injuries received in the line of duty in the case of the major, to long service in the case of the colonel. Not one of the officers chosen has done anything more than the duties required of him by the various positions he has had to fill. But the object of the Administration has been to transfer to the retired list as many of the older officers as possible in order to infuse new blood into the higher grades. It has, moreover, had the sanction of Congress in this procedure, despite the fact that, previous to 1898, no one ever dreamed of using one vacancy for the advancement of many officers, in order to give them a larger pension on retirement and a higher title. But it is a noteworthy fact that President Roosevelt is now going further than ever before, two of the newest generals having entered the army a decade after the

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close of the civil war. Where is this business to stop?

Unquestionably, the motive which induced Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt to resort to this method of promoting officers was a creditable one. They desired to reward a few worthy officers of long service for their gallantry in Cuba and the Philippines, and with this intention Congress sympathized from the first. Later on, Senators and Representatives were quick to see the political advantages resulting from the bestowal of such favors. Whether the responsibility rests with them or with the executive branch of the Government, the original motive has been entirely lost sight of, and many officers have been retired as generals who in no way merited the distinction save on the ground of length of service. This in itself does not entitle a servant of the Government to special consideration, particularly if the service has been inefficient or of that unintelligent and routine character to be found in so many of the branches of the Government.

Soon after Mr. Roosevelt began the policy of retiring large batches of civil-war veterans as generals, there was a loud outcry from those who had been retired with lower rank since 1898, but whose services were of the same general character. The demand for recognition and equal treatment became so great that the War Department fell back upon Congress, which responded by passing, on April 23 last, a law giving the President the right to advance by one grade every officer of civil-war service on the retired list who had not already been promoted for retirement purposes. As a result 90 colonels have become generals, and 42 lieutenant-colonels full colonels, while 49 majors, 136 captains, and 45 lieutenants have each been advanced one grade.

The large increase in salaries which this law necessitates is obvious. But this is not the most important consideration. As in every case where promotions are made *en masse*, so many black sheep have been advanced with the deserving officers as to nullify the purpose of the act—to reward worthy public servants who had been discriminated against by an abuse of the appointing power. For instance, among the officers favored are several forcibly retired by the President for the good of the service, others who retired voluntarily in order to escape courts-martial, and still others who have been punished for offences committed since retirement. In addition, there are a number of officers on the list whose previous rank was more than sufficient reward for their undistinguished service.

Far from being a stimulus to worthy officers, the latest action of President and Congress must be characterized as against the true interests of the army. Together with the advancement of such Presidential or political favorites as Grant, Funston, Wood, and Mills, it must be looked upon as certain to inculcate false ideals. Frederick the Great once utterly exposed the fallacy that merit consists in field service alone. Being urged to appoint a certain general to an exalted and much coveted post, he was told that the general in question had seen much active service. "Pooh," replied the King; "that is no recommendation. The mule that carries my baggage has gone through a dozen campaigns." Moreover, no one can maintain that all of the hundreds of officers specially advanced since 1898 actually saw field service. Many of them may have been miles from the front because their duty was elsewhere, like one of the latest batch of generals—an officer whose sole merit lay in being an efficient superintendent of transports in 1898 and 1899, in New York or San Francisco.

Not only has this wholesale promotion made every officer insist that he be retired as a general, but it has put a wholly false emphasis on length of service. This alone places the drone on the same footing with the worthy and able and scholarly officer. Upon pure merit almost no stress has been laid, or so little that the lesson has not been borne in upon the army as a whole, while many of the older generals, of the type of Gen. Schofield, feel that their rank has been so cheapened by its widespread and often unmerited bestowal as to have lost its value in a large degree. How great the loading up of the retired list with high-titled officers has been appears from the following figures: On January 1, 1898, there were 661 retired officers, of whom one was a lieutenant-general, seven were major-generals, and thirty-four brigadier-generals. By the middle of this week there will be 901 retired officers, of whom three are lieutenant-generals, eighteen major-generals, and no less than 248 brigadier-generals. Thus there have been created fully 221 generals in six years in an army ranging in size from 28,000 to 112,000 men, and now numbering less than 70,000. When the mortality of the same period is considered, the number seems even larger and in still more striking contrast with the handful of distinguished generals of the civil war who spent their last days on the retired list with titles corresponding to those they bore in the volunteer armies of the North.

TOLSTOY ON THE WAR.

Count Tolstoy's ten-column article in the London *Times* on the war between Russia and Japan is extraordinary in many aspects. As a mere literary production it is impressive. The analytic skill, the perfect command of material, the intellect, like Burke's, winding itself into its subject like a serpent, the realistic grasp upon the elusive phenomena of national passion and, rising above all, the magnificent idealism of this great writer, were never more wonderfully displayed. In 'War and Peace' Tolstoy gave us an unrivalled account of the psychology of an army in battle. In this article, he lays bare the complex motives, the mingled brutalities and mistaken aspirations, which drive a people into setting an army in battle array. The whole is so remarkable that one is not surprised at the glowing tribute from a brother in letters, Mr. Thomas Hardy. He writes that, making every allowance for Count Tolstoy's "extravagance of detail" and occasional "incoherence," "surely all objectors should be hushed by his great argument, and every defect in his particular reasonings hidden by the blaze of glory that shines from his masterly general indictment of war as a modern principle, with all its senseless and illogical crimes."

To say that Tolstoy is exceeding bold in lifting his single voice against a war to which 130,000,000 of his countrymen are madly committed, might seem exaggerated. He is perfectly safe. No Russian official would dare lay a hand on him. That is testimony to his moral elevation, now so great that it is a possession of the whole world; but a part of it lies in the transparent sincerity of the man, and his willingness to suffer for the truth. He would go without a murmur from Yasnaya Polyana to Siberia. Nor could exile dim his light. In any case, the courage to face a huge and unreasoning unpopularity is greater than is required to storm entrenchments, and that serene courage Tolstoy has. He knew well what it would mean to speak of the Czar as he does, at a moment when that monarch is the object of frantic adoration. "The unfortunate, entangled young man" Tolstoy calls him; and elsewhere speaks with indignation of "Nicholas Romanoff and Alexis Kuropatkin" deciding to kill thousands of "deluded Russian peasants . . . in support of those stupidities, robberies, and every kind of abomination which were accomplished in China and Korea by immoral, ambitious men now sitting peacefully in their palaces."

Tolstoy is especially severe upon the diplomatists who by their blunders and their lies brought on the war. He is merciless in his references to those journalists who first deceived the people, then wickedly excited them to fury and urged them on to death, at the same time that they themselves stay securely at home to coin money out of the blood of their fellows. So, too, the great nobles and the Korean concessionnaires come in for castigation; while especial scorn is reserved for the type of military man who hails war, as Roosevelt did, as a "crowded hour"—meaning thereby the glutting of savage instincts; with hope, all the while, of rewards and

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promotions through the death of superior officers.

It is, however, in his depiction of the onset and sweep of the war mania that this master of realism writes with a pen which pierces through the current pretences on that subject. First among the horrors of war he places, for enlightened men, "the consciousness of the impotency of human reason." All that raises us above the beasts is thrown away in red fury. In a moment of national obsession, the whole work of civilization, the progress of science, the teachings of religion, are suddenly declared to be not merely useless, but pernicious, simply impeding action, "like a bridle fallen from a horse's head and entangled in his legs and only irritating him." The cumulative stupefaction and brutalizing of the national mind by war madness are described with appalling power:

"The Assyrians, Romans, or Greeks might be persuaded that in fighting they were not only acting according to their conscience, but even fulfilling a righteous deed. But we are Christians; and however Christianity may have been distorted, its general spirit cannot but lift us to that higher plane of reason whence we can no longer refrain from feeling with our whole being not only the senselessness and the cruelty of war, but its complete opposition to all that we regard as good and right. Therefore, we cannot do as they did, with assurance, firmness, and peace, and without a consciousness of our criminality, without the desperate feeling of a murderer who, having begun to kill his victim, and feeling in the depths of his soul the guilt of his act, proceeds to try to stupefy or infuriate himself, to be able the better to complete his dreadful deed. All the unnatural, feverish, hotheaded, insane excitement which has now seized the idle upper ranks of Russian society is merely the symptom of their recognation of the criminality of the work which is being done."

One must read the whole of Tolstoy's blasting arraignment of the war spirit to appreciate its withering effect. Of course, his own position is the same as that of the 'Biglow Papers'—"As fer war, I call it murder"; but he brings out with terrific force its senselessness, its gross futility, its tendency to cause society and nations practically to commit suicide, and to reduce men at last to the condition of "spiders in a jar," destroying each other. Upon the folly of hoping to prevent war by heaping up the implements of war, he pours out his sarcasm. That way, at best, universal bankruptcy lies.

Powerful in diagnosis, Tolstoy seems to offer a weak remedy. He bids men do away with war by becoming mystics. Let them reflect on the meaning of life, on the love of God, on the brotherhood of man; then they will fight no more. This is, undoubtedly, in line with the exhortations of the sublime Galilean mystic; but as they have gone unheeded for 1,900 years, it is not probable that Tolstoy's echo of them will produce any immediate effect. From the Christianity of the churches he draws back, everybody knows, as from a hateful superstition. This naturally diminishes by so much his chance of a hearing. But, however far the world may be from accepting his doctrines, it cannot deny the justice and frightful veracity of his account of that national madness which we call war. He lights up its murky horrors with startling flashes of description. He shows it to be so bestial, so anti-social, so destructive of civilization, that he makes his breathless readers willing to agree with him in thinking it the sum of all villanies.

ACTIVE LIBERALISM IN RUSSIA.

One of the most interesting questions raised by the war in the East is the effect it may have on the internal organization of Russia. An ultimate success would reëstablish, and even enhance, the prestige of Russian arms within the Empire, as well as before the rest of the world, and would thus lend the Government further strength in suppressing all opposition. On the contrary, serious military reverses might easily provoke grave popular upheavals. Whether such disturbances would have permanent effects, would depend mainly on the extent to which moral opposition to the autocracy has now spread in the practical middle class.

Any independent concerted action on the part of the illiterate lower classes is out of the question; the muzhiks, and even the factory workmen, can be flogged into submission one by one. Furthermore, the young revolutionists, with their desire to transform Holy Russia at one stroke into a kingdom of heaven on earth, are probably too emotional to be capable of acting as efficient organizers and leaders of a large popular movement. Beyond the occasional assassination of a reactionary official, the Government has little to fear from them. But the moderate, level-headed men of the active middle class, with their fund of experience in the affairs of practical life and consequently their influence on other classes of the population, would, if thoroughly aroused to opposition, constitute a formidable enemy of the autocracy. What then, is the present political attitude of Russia's middle class? Numerous occurrences of the past few years indicate that, while the principles of constitutional monarchy have all but universal acceptance, a large majority have arrived at the conviction that the arbitrary autocracy of the Czar hampers the healthy progress of national life, and in one form or another thwarts the public or private career of practically every Russian.

This year's "Third Congress of Technical Educators," convened by the Minister of Public Instruction, was attended by over 3,000 persons from all parts of Russia. The dominant feeling of the congress is described by one of its members as "the high-strung, nervous, joyous feeling of men who had suddenly been thrown into contact with a mass of others sharing their own views, and had learned that the pulse of public indignation is beating high all over the country, that the present political régime has reached a state of profound decay everywhere, and that the scattered malcontents are, not companionless units, but soldiers of a whole army ready to fight the autocracy." As soon as this spirit had become evident, the Government authorities decided to adjourn the congress at the earliest possible opportunity. A pretext was presently found in the expulsion, by the congress, of two of the most conspicuous instigators of the Kishineff massacres—whereby the congress intended to show that Russia proper had been appalled by the infamous brutalities no less than the rest of the civilized world. At the final meeting of the executive committee, composed largely of Government officials, M. Zernoff, president of the St. Petersburg Institute of Technology, proposed to file a formal protest with the Minister of Public Instruction against the interference of the police and the adjournment of the congress. Another member of the committee stated the true reason of the adjournment frankly: "We all know," he said, "that there is throughout Russia a growing dissatisfaction with the existing order, and that this dissatisfaction is manifesting itself in a very broad social movement. The congress was adjourned because it reflected, as it inevitably must, the extraordinary elevation of public temperature which has now spread all over our country."

The Ninth Congress of Physicians and Surgeons, held shortly after the congress of educators, showed a similar "elevation of temperature." Thus, the sections for public medicine, mental and nervous diseases, internal diseases, and bacteriology, adopted the following joint resolution: "A systematic and rational struggle with infant mortality, alcoholism, tuberculosis, syphilis, and other widespread diseases, which form in Russia a public evil of enormous extent, is possible only under conditions enabling a broad dissemination of enlightenment concerning the true causes of their development and the methods of combating them, the necessary conditions being complete freedom of the individual, of speech, of the press, and of assembly." The members of the sections for medical statistics, hygiene, and children's diseases had similarly come to the conclusion that the public practitioner as such can, under the present Russian régime, accomplish very little toward the alleviation of physical suffering among the people. Here is one of their resolutions: "Believing that the extraordinarily high infant mortality of Russia is due mainly to the poverty and ignorance of her population, the congress expresses the profound conviction that a successful struggle with this evil is possible only by way

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of broad social reforms." Another section of the congress resolved that "corporal punishment should not exist in Russia; and the assistance of a physician, in the capacity of witness or expert, in the administration of such punishment, is inadmissible." These resolutions were naturally distasteful to the reigning bureaucracy, and at the instance of the St. Petersburg municipal authorities the presiding officer of the congress refused to read them publicly at the last general session. The members protested vehemently, flung chairs among the orchestra which endeavored to drown out the demonstration, and after an hour of indescribable confusion were dispersed by the police.

We have, finally, before us a copy of a recent confidential circular from the Minister of the Interior to several district governors. The zemstvos of their districts had agreed to take joint action in the matter of sending sanitary aid to the wounded and sick at the front. The members of the zemstvos, which represent what little local self-government there is in Russia, come from a naturally conservative class of the population, their eligibility being based on the ownership of considerable property. But the Government evidently realizes clearly how little conservatism there remains anywhere outside of its own bureaucracy. The circular in question expresses the fear that similar joint action might some time be taken by the zemstvos "in certain other cases," and directs the governors to prevent any future agreement whatsoever between the zemstvos of different districts.

Plainly, the Government is losing support among the most influential and responsible classes, and has learned to fear them. Friends of the country of Tolstoy and Turgeneff can only hope that its rulers, instead of inventing further measures of repression, will yield to the needs and reasonable demands of the people before the reverses in the war, or some other spark, may set off an explosion of incalculable magnitude.

THE GEORGE SAND CENTENARY.

Literary commemorations are often of the frigid order. Concerning our own Emerson and Hawthorne, for example, it is amazing how little centenary critics have found to say. Vividly remembered these great authors are not, and their celebration passes with perfunctory respect. In France, on the contrary, the one-hundredth anniversary of George Sand's birth has been an event of passionate interest. One may doubt the taste of the mass of reminiscence and comment that has filled the Parisian reviews; one cannot doubt the sincerity of the writers. George Sand is quite as vivid to-day as she was when, to Robert Browning's chagrin, Mrs. Browning did obeisance to a sibyl who flaunted lovers and by no means scorned cigars. To-day France takes sides eagerly in her love affairs; and if no duels have come off in the Bois de Vincennes, it is because the frankest criticism of this inconstant genius has been tempered with affection. To find a parallel for the cult of George Sand one must go to Dr. Johnson. In either case the persons have attained a kind of individual immortality, though time has largely corroded their works.

Why George Sand should haunt the world when her greater contemporaries are paling, is not immediately apparent. One ingenious critic has explained that she had a masculine mind and heart; but the charm of so sincere a person can hardly have been that of masquerade. Nor is it at all likely that her memory rests on a continuous *succès de scandale*. There was, in fact, in her adaptability to varying sentimental temperatures nothing which might not be illustrated a hundred times in fairer women now clean forgotten. We doubt, also, if she is remembered by her books. 'Consuelo,' 'The Duchess of Rudolstadt'—what are they? "Are they mine?" she once asked. Where her memory failed, that of her latter-day readers will scarcely burden itself. She lives unquestionably not in literary, but in personal tradition. She is the most interesting woman of to-day because she was the most interesting woman of her time. Something bold and expansive in her condoned the dubious chapter of her loves; an instinctive wisdom makes her to all literary people what she was to Flaubert, the counsellor and patron saint—the St. George of letters.

Her expansiveness, her absence of pose or self-consciousness of any kind, are perhaps the commonest virtues, as they are the most agreeable social qualities. They are virtues rare in her class. One of her lovers, Musset, represented perfectly the artist's character. Complexity, irritability, self-consciousness, fear of life, scorn of the commonplace—these were his traits. His experience of the disease of the century has become so typical that serious observers have regarded the artistic temperament as a neurosis, and have virtually revived the ancient belief that inspiration is perilously akin to insanity or diabolical possession. Against such a theory George Sand's life makes strikingly. Her dominant note was courage and simplicity; her sins were of the downright, uncomplicated kind, and from them she emerged into practical, almost *bourgeois*, beneficence. She had no sense of isolation as an artist, no fear that any contact with life was beneath her dignity as a genius. Utterly lacking the vanities of her craft, she is in many respects the consummate example of the expansive temperament, and she represents on an imposing scale the qualities that win affection among ordinary people. Examples of her gallant attitude towards life could be multiplied indefinitely from her correspondence. We content ourselves with characteristic extracts from letters newly published by M. Doumic in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Thus, she writes to her daughter Solange encouraging her to undertake the literary career:

"With or without talent, with or without profit, with or without reputation, is not this an immense result—to gain the victory over the boredoms, the deceptions, the wearinesses, and the chagrins of life? Life cannot change about us for our sake. We are all condemned to suffer more or less, but we can influence ourselves, we belong to ourselves, we can transform and fortify ourselves, making of work and reflection our sword or our breastplate."

Again writing to her daughter, George Sand urges as the only resource against the sadness of life allegiance to duty—a difficult word she says, but resumed in the maxims "to be generous and good, to do nothing for love of self, fear of suffering or desire of happiness, but to do everything in justice, kindness, and greatness of soul." A life conceived on these lines would naturally escape those poignant tragedies which result from the egotism of the artist, and it was without doubt such simple maxims, coupled with George Sand's patent errors, that led an ovver-subtle critic to maintain that she was at bottom an *honnête homme*, and only by chance a woman to boot, and a genius.

As to that, the will to live is probably stronger among women than among men, and the tragedy of a broken life correspondingly greater. George Sand never appears more feminine than when she bids a weakling like Musset or a hypochondriac like Flaubert look at life unterrified. That is woman's habitual ministry to men perplexed by the will to feel, or over-burdened by the will to do. George Sand's distinction is probably that she brought this passionate faith in life into a literature clouded by the peculiar melancholy of the artist and chilled by the pessimism of the rationalist. Her case reminds us how completely artistic effect is a matter of emphasis. Her expansiveness is, one might say, only the normal fervor of the average woman raised to the altitude of genius. So what was mere Toryism in a generation of county squires became Dr. Johnson's best gage of immortality. George Sand's ultimate literary position may still be more or less in doubt; her preëminent distinction as a brave champion of the worth of life seems established for all time.

LORD GOSCHEN AT THE OXFORD ENCÆNIA.

OXFORD, June 22, 1904.

Within the last forty years we have had the 700th anniversary of Bologna University, the 600th anniversary of the founding at Oxford of Merton College, the 300th of Sir

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Thomas Bodley's Library, the 250th celebration of John Harvard's foundation, the 200th anniversary at New Haven, and the 150th at Princeton. Decimal notation, older itself than any foundation, learned or unlearned, seems unlikely to yield us further occasions for academic festivity in the near future; but meanwhile a very impressive mediæval ceremonial, annually observed except in times of tribulation, has just been illustrated and enhanced at Oxford by the first official appearance in Convocation of the new Chancellor, Lord Goschen, inaugurated not long since at Seacox Heath, Hawkhurst, from which place derives his full title, Viscount Goschen of Hawkhurst.

The powers of the Chancellor are presumably too vast to allow of their frequent exercise by him in his own person. Normally he acts by his deputy, the Vice-Chancellor for the time being, and the most indispensable of his duties would seem to be the annual delegation of his powers. A Chancellor's personal attendance to preside over the Encænia—*i. e.*, that meeting of Convocation annually held late in the month of June by way of commemorating founders and benefactors, and giving the University a new start on the way in which it should go—involves among other things the creation of many honorary doctors, many more than are created when the Vice-Chancellor presides as usual. This is but logical, since the Chancellor, academically speaking, is the very fountain of honor. When personally presiding in Convocation, indeed, he is like the King in Council, or the Pope speaking *ex cathedra*. Hence there is no ground for surprise that when Lord Goschen's predecessor, the late Lord Salisbury, was first in this case, such floods of greatness fell from him that sixty honorary doctors were created, including the then Speaker of the House of Commons, who had to ask for a special vote of the House in order to absent himself. To fulfil ceremonial requirements on that occasion two meetings of Convocation were of course required, and were held on two successive days. Lord Goschen, on the other hand, contenting himself with one meeting of Convocation, has created 37 doctors; 16 in Civil Law (D. C. L.), 13 in Science (D. Sc.), and 8 in Letters (D. Litt.). In these creations the Chancellor acts as the chosen exponent of the mind of the University, which consists technically of 13,000-odd matriculated members, whose prerogatives are lodged with the members of Convocation—*i. e.*, 6,000 Doctors and Masters. These are in turn chiefly made visible by the 500 more or less from among their number who reside in Oxford and not only are qualified members of Convocation, but also constitute the smaller body called Congregation. It is therefore interesting to note that, before presiding at Convocation, the new Chancellor held a levee in Oriel College to which all members of Congregation were invited.

At Oriel College, the academic home alike of the Chancellor and of the present Vice-Chancellor, was formed the procession. After the bedells walked the Chancellor, in the singularly majestic robes of his office, made resplendent with gold embroidery, and in themselves so weighty that the office of two train-bearing pages, Lord Goschen's grandsons, was no sinecure. Next came a long line of doctors and heads of colleges, with the proctors, senior and junior. Then followed those who were to receive honorary degrees. These last halted in the Divinity School under that part of the Bodleian known as Duke Humphrey's Library, while the first part of the procession moved on into the Sheldonian Theatre, and, once within it, proceeded through the assemblage of masters of arts to the raised seat of the Chancellor. He, having enthroned himself with his two pages near at hand, the two proctors on either side of him, opened Convocation as soon as the rest of his company had disposed themselves in the doctors' places, close by. He began by enumerating with a word or two of graceful comment the names of those to be honored and their several proposed degrees. Convocation having audibly assented to the proposed honors, the bedells sallied forth and led in first the procession of sixteen doctors of civil law. Professor Goudy introduced each one of them with a brief eulogium, and the Chancellor hailed each in order with a well-turned vocative salutation, into which was distilled the wit and wisdom of his mature appreciation. After a hand-shake he then invited each to an appointed seat in the rows of the doctors. The Professor of Natural Philosophy, Dr. Love, similarly introduced each of the thirteen doctors of science, who appeared next, and Dr. Bywater, Regius Professor of Greek, performed the same office for the doctors of letters, who were introduced last. The genuine mediæval character of the whole ceremonial and stage-setting appeared best when most of the recipients of degrees had been eulogized and taken their appointed places. The ocular effect of the whole assemblage, with its varied reds and grays and blacks, each accentuated by the appointed combination required by the regulations as to academic costume, was irresistibly suggestive of well-known mediæval pictures of the Court of Heaven with its rows of prophets, saints and doctors rising rank upon rank on either side of the throne of grace. Nor was the brilliant assemblage, chiefly of ladies, which surrounded the Chancellor, the proctors and the doctors, without its analogue in those familiar Old World representations. They recalled the hosts of the blessed—and blessed they may well have accounted themselves on this much frequented occasion in securing cards of admission.

Professor Goudy introduced the French ambassador, M. Cambon, with feeling allusions to the *entente cordiale* and praises of the ambassador's Greek scholarship, and the Chancellor hailed him as "amicitiæ interpres." The Vice-Chancellor, who has hitherto successfully eluded all attempts to illustrate the Oxford Doctorate by persuading him to accept it, was eulogized for devotion to the University and preëminent Greek learning, and then saluted by the Chancellor as Provost of Oriel, "collegii mei inter præpositos." The Archbishop of Canterbury was eulogized as his father-in-law's (Archbishop Tait's) worthy successor, ruling the Church with firmness and benignity, and then saluted as "grandissime." Professor Goudy and the Chancellor both made happy allusion to the 'Lux Mundi' of the Bishop of Worcester (Gore). Lord Balfour of Burleigh's services to Scotch education were enlarged upon. Lord Tennyson was addressed by the Chancellor as "poetæ præstantissimi filii," and Lord Curzon as "illustrissimus," with a reference to the "lustrum" just spent by him in India "non sine gloria." The Speaker of the House of Commons was amusingly introduced with fear and trembling by Professor Goudy, who felt nervous lest he should "name" some member of Convocation, and took refuge in a happy quotation from Horace, while Lord Goschen, less overawed, hailed him as "senatus orator sapientissime." Horace again supplied a happy turn in Professor Goudy's description of the Admiral of the fleet, whom he characterized as "tenacem propositi virum," while the Chancellor greeted him as "patriæ amantissime." Gen. French's greeting as "vir fortissime" was followed by a splendid recognition of his relief of Kimberley in the words "urbium in Africa obsessarum servator et vindex." Mr. John Sargent, already described before his entrance as "Apellem nostrum" (the possessive implying that Mr. Sargent was the common possession of England and America), was wittily apostrophized as "vir spectatissime, splendide audax." Last, but by by no means least, among the sixteen doctors of civil law, came Mr. Charles Booth, formerly President of the Royal Statistical Society, whose unprecedented labors for the poor of London were acclaimed alike by his most enthusiastic reception, by the eulogium of Professor Goudy, and by the feeling tribute of the Chancellor's discriminating superlative, "probissime."

Among the thirteen doctors of science introduced by Professor Love were Signor Marconi, Sir William Crookes, Sir David Gill, Astronomer Royal of the Cape of Good Hope; Sir John Murray, a Canadian famous in connection with the *Challenger* reports; Mr. Alfred Marshall, and Mr. James Dewar. Among the eight doctors of letters presented by Professor Bywater, Mr. W. D. Howells came third, after Lord Reay and Sir Spencer Walpole. Professor Bywater introduced Mr. Howells as a representative of America, the people united to England by ties of blood-relationship, which it was England's desire to draw even closer. He then described him as "literatissimus," dwelt upon the graces of his diction and the quiet glow of his style, particularizing his faithful portrayal of character, and finally adducing his pictures of Italian manners and monuments drawn in the spirit of genuine love and contagious appreciation. The Chancellor hailed him as a poet and welcomed him as an American. Prof. Lewis Campbell was eulogized as the learned interpreter alike of Sophocles and of Plato, Mr. W. L. Newman as a memorable lecturer at Oxford on ancient history, and as a translator of Aristotle. Mr. Andrew Lang's versatility was playfully insisted upon, and he was welcomed as "eximium doctrinæ cum humanitate, sale, lepore conjunctæ specimen." Finally, Mr. Walter Leaf, already a Litt.D. of Cambridge, was saluted as an Oxford D.Litt. and described as a distinguished citizen of London and one of the ornaments of Cambridge learning. His edition of the Iliad was most happily pronounced an "opus magnum ac non uno nomine memorabile."

One noteworthy feature of this year's Encænia has been the almost entire disappearance of that traditional horseplay from undergraduates in the galleries, so dear to old-time frequenters of commemoration at Oxford. No doubt this relic of the pranks performed anciently by the *terræ*

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filius, the chartered academic libertine of the Middle Age, has in its day served to relieve the Encænia from dulness, but the wit so plentifully lavished this year upon the stately Latin speeches of introduction, and even more plentifully present in the Chancellor's welcoming words to each honored guest, made the unfledged essays of undergraduate raillery so obviously superfluous that the galleries were practically silent. No doubt respect for Lord Goschen also played its part here, for he has been fittingly described as "one who was a typical embodiment of all that was most enlightened and progressive in the Oxford of his youth, and whose subsequent career has shown that political and economic thinking of a high order is not incompatible with statesmanship of the most severely practical kind." At all events, the Crewean oration delivered by the public orator (Dr. Merry, rector of Lincoln) was a very eloquent tribute alike to the present Chancellor and to his lamented predecessor. Convocation thoroughly enjoyed the Crewean oration, and even had attention left for the double prize man, Mr. C. C. Martindale of Pope's Hall—a flourishing institution ruled by one who is a native of the United States and a member of the Society of Jesus. Mr. Martindale gave portions of his Gaisford prize version from Virgil into Greek, and of his Chancellor's prize poem in Latin upon Sertorius. Mr. Roome of Merton also read from his Stanhope prize essay on "James Edward, the Old Pretender." Finally, Mr. Bell of Christ Church recited portions of his Newdigate prize poem on Delphi, a production so finished and felicitous that it deserved a less exhausted audience than the one which listened to it as the closing feature in proceedings which had already lasted two hours and a half. It is a noteworthy fact that from this year onward the conditions of Sir Roger Newdigate's prize revert to what they were not very many years ago, and no longer strictly confine those competing to the use of the rhymed couplet

LOUIS DYER.

BONAPARTE AND ENGLAND, 1803-1813.

PARIS, June 24, 1904.

Another volume has recently been added to the Napoleonic literature of our time. It is of a purely historical character, and has been written from inedited documents in the Archives of our Foreign Affairs Office, the National Archives, and the papers of the English Foreign Office. The author, M. P. Coquelle, has entitled his work 'Napoléon et l'Angleterre, 1803-1813.'

"It seems," he says in his preface, "as if everything had been said concerning Napoleon's relations and difficulties with England. One point, however, has never been thoroughly made clear; viz., the history of the diplomatic relations between the Emperor and the British Cabinet from the rupture of the Peace of Amiens in 1803 to the first abdication in 1814. Notwithstanding the constant state of war, there were always relations between the two Cabinets, which had in view a *rapprochement*, either direct or indirect. The principal historians of Napoleon gave a few pages to these, but put them in the background, as military events efface all others in the career of Napoleon. Even the writers at Saint-Helena and the Emperor himself made but few allusions to these diplomatic relations."

M. Coquelle will have it that these relations are important, first, as revealing a side of Napoleon still imperfectly known, and, secondly, as showing how a *rapprochement* became gradually quite impossible. Most French historians have held England responsible for the rupture of the Peace of Amiens. Among them we may cite Thiers, Bignon, and more recently M. Albert Sorel, in his book on Europe and the French Revolution. M. Coquelle is not quite so positive: he considers Holland the true cause of the war. In continuing to occupy Flushing and Utrecht, contrary to the formal engagements entered into under the Treaty of Lunéville and the convention of The Hague, he maintains that Bonaparte gave to England the right to keep Malta as an equivalent. "In vain," he says, "was an arrangement proposed to him; he never consented to evacuate Holland, notwithstanding the just reclamations of the British Cabinet, and thus forced it to recall Lord Whitworth."

The articles of the Peace of Amiens had been fixed by Lord Addington and by M. Otto, who, though he was born in the Duchy of Baden, had been employed in the French Foreign Office before the Revolution, and had been chargé d'affaires in Berlin in 1799, and sent to London in 1800 to negotiate a convention relative to prisoners of war. Otto was replaced by Gen. Andreossy in 1802. Born of an old Italian family, Count Andreossy had participated in the wars of the Revolution; in Italy he became a friend of Bonaparte, and he took an active part in the eighteenth Brumaire. Andreossy's letters to his Government treat chiefly of the occupation of Switzerland, of Piedmont, of Holland by France, of Alexandria and Malta by England. We find here and there passages concerning the French *émigrés* and the French princes living in England. Bonaparte desired that the French bishops who had left France, and the Chouans, should be expelled; that the *émigrés* should not be allowed to wear the old French decorations. "It would be fitting," Talleyrand wrote to Andreossy on December 2, 1802, "that the Bourbons should be sent away, or at least that they should not be allowed to wear decorations which show a perpetual want of consideration for the Republic." Agents were sent to Edinburgh to watch the Count of Artois, who was living in Holyrood Palace. Military honors were paid to him.

"Bonaparte," says M. Coquelle, "did not understand the laws of hospitality towards important personages; his pretensions on this point were absurd; he covered himself with ridicule in the eyes of the courts, for have not people always the right to wear a decoration regularly given, even when the Government which gave it has ceased to exist?"

Bonaparte had a conversation with the English ambassador on the 18th of February, 1803. He made violent reproaches on the subject of the occupation of Malta and the conspiracies of the *émigrés;* Lord Whitworth spoke in his turn of the annexation of Switzerland and Piedmont and the non-evacuation of Holland. The First Consul used expressions so trivial and vulgar that they could not be repeated in a dispatch. Napoleon ended by threatening England with invasion. "Instead," says M. Coquelle, "of entering into a discussion, to which Lord Addington invited him, on the subject of the acquisition of Piedmont and the conservation of Holland by France in exchange for the occupation of Malta, Bonaparte sent a sort of ultimatum, in which he increased his exactions." This ultimatum was formulated by Talleyrand in a dispatch written the day after the Emperor's conversation with Whitworth. Talleyrand wrote to Gen. Andreossy and ordered him to ask verbally, but positively, (1) that Alexandria and Malta should be evacuated; (2) that Georges and his Chouan friends should be expelled from British territory; (3) that the English papers should not be allowed to indulge in outrages, repugnant to public decency, to the law of nations, and to the state of peace, against France and the First Consul.

It is clear that Bonaparte's policy was to drift into war. It is not surprising that he should have felt war necessary to the accomplishing of his projects. He had done much to pacify revolutionary France after her long agitations; nothing can be more interesting than to read the successive numbers of the official paper following the *coup d'état* of Brumaire—it seemed as if a new world was in creation. The Concordat; the reconciliation of France with the old Church; the Code Civil; the organization of the departments—all these measures were, so to speak, the consummation of the work begun in 1789, and so unfortunately interrupted by the drama of the Revolution; but Napoleon felt that the revolutionary party could not be thoroughly vanquished if he did not occupy France with great enterprises. He felt, also, that he owed everything to war; that if he was to create a new dynasty he must be a new Cæsar. War was to him a necessity, the instinctive need of his nature.

We cannot overlook this psychological aspect of Napoleon's nature. Individuals obey a sort of law of development; Napoleon was bound to continue as he had begun. The negotiations with England were a mere veil, and could end only in war. When Napoleon had resolved to make war on England, though the British Cabinet had finally offered to evacuate Malta after ten years, he made a scene with Lord Whitworth before the whole diplomatic corps. (His nephew, Napoleon III., in imitation of him, made an apostrophe to Baron Hübner at the reception of the diplomatic body on the eve of the Italian war.)

"So," said Napoleon to Lord Whitworth, "you are determined to make war?"

"No, First Consul," calmly answered the ambassador; "we know too well the advantages of peace. We have already been at war for fifteen years. It is something too much."

"But," said Bonaparte, "you wish to be at it fourteen years longer, and you force me to it." Then, speaking to the diplomatic body, he added: "The English want war; but if they are the first to draw the sword, I shall be the last to put it in the scabbard. They do not respect treaties. We must cover them therefore with a black veil."

He went on in this way, in a great state of agitation. The English Ambassador preserved his calm. Napoleon's last word before leaving the room was: "Woe to those who do not respect treaties."

The inedited letters of Andreossy to Bonaparte at that period are given by M. Coquelle, and are a valuable addition to history. Andreossy says that the English viewed with great jealousy the recovery of France after the Revolution, and her economical development; still, he believed that they did not desire war, and a system

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of mutual compensations might be found and ought to be adopted. He speaks of Hanover as furnishing a ground for such compensations. Meanwhile England was making preparations, enlisting seamen. France had five hundred thousand men under arms. Andreossy went to Talleyrand: "The second thought of the Britannic Government is not to keep Malta. Lord Hawkesbury said to an acquaintance of mine, in these words: 'We cannot evacuate Malta before we can assure Parliament and the nation that the discussions have taken a pacific turn; but we do not say "Malta or war."'" Andreossy made a supreme appeal to Bonaparte in a private letter. "Everybody here wants peace; by keeping Europe at peace you will crush this country." In another letter Andreossy writes: "Never, in any circumstances, has there been a more general desire for the maintenance of peace, and you will find yourself placed in the most advantageous position for fixing invariably the destiny of the world."

These letters, which have never been published, seem to throw on Bonaparte the entire responsibility for the rupture of the Peace of Amiens.

"It is impossible," says M. Coquelle, "to have any doubt as to the experience or the character of Andreossy. Having numerous relations in the aristocratic spheres of London, a friend of Addington and Hawkesbury, he was not ignorant of the aspirations of England for peace, nor the desire of the Cabinet to preserve it. Napoleon, if he neglected his warnings, rendered justice to him afterwards, by confiding to him the important diplomatic posts of Vienna and of Constantinople."

It seems quite clear that Bonaparte wished for war; it is not so clear to us, notwithstanding what M. Coquelle says, that England desired peace. She was, whatever may have been said in diplomatic conversations or written in diplomatic dispatches, determined to keep Malta. The veil of negotiation covered on both sides preparations for war. The *Times* is now giving us daily extracts of what was written for the English public a hundred years ago; they show clearly the deep hostility of the English Government to an upstart régime in France, which was threatening to become the arbiter of Europe.

Correspondence.

THE MINING LABOR UNION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If no press statute of limitations applies, a word may be in order touching a remark made editorially in your issue of June 16, on the labor situation in Colorado. You there say (p. 462), concerning the President's intervention in the Pennsylvania coal strike, "But, in the first place, that was not strictly a local disorder. It threatened misery to the people of a score of States."

I call attention to this because, to one having to help fight the battles for law and order and respect for right in the Far West, your words have almost the sound of a foreigner's criticism—well-meaning and sincere, but none the less the result of observations made through glasses of insufficient focal distance. It is not that those facing the struggle in the West desire interference on the part of the Federal Executive, but that they deem it important that all our people should know that the Western Federation of Miners controls the acts and opinions of the great bulk of the miners from Colorado to the Pacific, and that every advantage gained by the Federation in Colorado but strengthens and emboldens the men in every camp in the West; that every "martyr," so-called, made by mistaken policies in Colorado, only adds fuel to the flames, and increases the burdens of every mine manager, and endangers the property of every mining company, in at least ten States. It is as far as possible from being a local disorder; and to one in constant touch with the situation through the control of large bodies of men feverish with excitement over what they call the crime against labor in Colorado, openly accusing the good people of Cripple Creek of dynamiting the ill-fated train and station in order to make it seem an act of the Miners' Union, so as to cast reproach upon them, and earnestly preaching the later Socialistic doctrines as enunciated by Eugene V. Debs and that incendiary paper, the *Appeal to Reason*—to one living in such an atmosphere, fifteen hundred miles from Cripple Creek, it seems a very general disorder indeed, meriting the inauguration of effective policies sustained and encouraged by all lovers of freedom and of republican institutions in America to preserve from destruction the right to labor and to enjoy the fruits of labor without let or hindrance from one's fellows.

Although for the most part the Western Federation of Miners presents the same aspects as trade unionism in the East, there is this difference: it is perhaps the most generously comprehensive of all labor organizations, embracing miners and all collateral help, including surface shovellers, millmen, carpenters, machinists, engineers, even to teamsters. The merchants and saloonkeepers, of course, who desire to "stand in" with the union, have to take out their "union cards." Reaching thus into every detail connected directly or remotely with mining, this organization is in a position to powerfully affect the political complexion of the large district it has covered, and it has officially declared for Socialism and the Socialist party's nominees, the campaign being marked by a most energetic propaganda of Socialistic doctrine.

I have chosen your remarks merely as a text to accentuate the fact, too generally overlooked in the East, that Gov. Peabody is not engaged in adjusting a mere family jar, but is actually by his procedure shaping events for good or ill over an immense portion of these United States. I am not guilty of any suspicion of intentional misrepresentation by the *Nation*, which no one could entertain who has watched the bold championship of the rights of free labor for which your editorial pages have been conspicuous.

In conclusion, I may venture the opinion that there was fully as much justification for interference by the President in Colorado as there was in Pennsylvania; but the wisdom of such interference would have been questionable. The hope of the Socialist miners is that President Roosevelt may lift his hand against labor as represented by the Western Federation, and that the Democrats may nominate a man distinctly of the conservative, capitalistic class, so that both parties may be held up as evils and monsters, seeking the life-blood of the laboring people. C.

San Francisco, Cal., July 4, 1904.

THE AYER COLLECTION OF PHILIPPINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of May 26 your reviewer of the Philippine bibliography recently published by the Library of Congress says: "He [*i. e.*, Dr. T. H. Pardo de Tavera] possesses in Manila what is undoubtedly the largest library of Philippina in existence, with the exception of that of Señor Retana, which numbers, or once numbered, 2,697 titles, including manuscripts."

The following facts in regard to Philippina in our own country are interesting and gratifying. First, however, in regard to the magnificent collection laboriously and enthusiastically amassed by W. E. Retana of Madrid: that collection is no longer intact, having been sold several years since, far below its present value, to the Compañía de Tabacos de Filipinas of Barcelona, whose director, Señor Don Clemente Miralles de Imperial, is also an enthusiastic collector of Philippina, and whose collection, so far as printed books are concerned, is the largest in existence, although it is poor in original manuscripts. By the acquisition of the Retana collection the above library numbered many duplicates, most of which have been sold.

There are two other notable collections in Spain, namely, that of Rev. Eduardo Navarro, O. S. A., of Valladolid, which includes a number of rare books and several precious manuscripts, among the latter being San Agustin's 'Conquistas,' Zúñiga's 'Estadismo' (a more complete copy than the one used by Retana in his edition), and Ortiz's 'Practica,' which has never been published in full; and the collection of the Rev. Pablo Pastells, S. J., of Barcelona, which contains but few rare books, but a number of fine original manuscripts, among them an unpublished history by Chirino, and thousands of copies of valuable manuscripts from Madrid, Seville, and other points. A fine collection is said also to exist in St. Petersburg, Russia.

But, coming to the Philippina of our own country, besides the excellent collection in the Library of Congress, which is steadily growing, and those at Lenox, Harvard, and Boston Public libraries, it is gratifying to know that we have one private collection, that of Mr. Edward E. Ayer of Chicago, the well-known collector of Americana, which bids fair to rival the largest of those mentioned above, both in the number and the rarity of its titles. The writer has recently had an opportunity to examine thoroughly this collection, which includes both books and manuscripts.

In his acquisition of printed books, Mr. Ayer has been singularly fortunate, and his shelves show such rare titles as the following: Gonzales de Mendoza's 'Historia . . . del gran reyno de la China' (several early editions in Spanish and Latin, among them a 1586 edition); Vaez's 'Litteræ Annuæ Insularum Philippinarum' (in Hay's 'De rebus Japonicis,' Antwerp, 1605); Chirino's 'Relacion de las islas Filipinas' (Rome,

CARNEGIE BRANCH

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1604); Morga's 'Sucesos de las islas Philipinas' (Mexico, 1609), also, the only copy ever bound of the Zaragoza reprint (Madrid, 1887), the rest of the edition unfortunately having been sold as waste paper because of the above editor's death before completing his preface and annotations; Leonardo de Argensola's 'Conquista de las islas Malucas' (Madrid, 1609); three of the series of four volumes of the Dominican Chronicles, 'Historia de la provincia del Sancto Rosario,' namely, the volumes by Diego Aduarte (Manila, 1640; and the second edition, Saragossa, 1693), Baltasar de Santa Cruz (Saragossa, 1693), Vicente Salazar (Manila, 1742) —the fourth volume, by Domingo Collantes (Manila, 1783), is exceedingly rare; Colin's 'Labor evangélica' (Madrid, 1663); two of the series of four volumes of the Recollect or discalced Augustinian chronicles, 'Historia de los religiosos descalzos,' namely, the volumes by Andres de San Nicolas (Madrid, 1664), and Luis de Jesus (Madrid, 1681); Garcia's 'Vida y martyrio de . . . Diego Luis de Sanvitores' (Madrid, 1683); San Agustin's 'Conquista de las islas Philipinas' (Madrid, 1698); 'Extracto Historial' (Madrid, 1736; one of a hundred copies printed); San Antonio's 'Chronicas de la . . . provincia de San Gregorio' (Sampaloc, 1738-44); Mozo's 'Noticia historica' (Madrid, 1763); Concepcion's 'Historia general' (1778-92); Malo de Luque's (pseud. of the Duke of Almodovar) 'Historia política' (Madrid, 1784-95); Martinez de Zúñiga's 'Historia de las islas Philipinas' (Sampaloc, 1803); besides many printed ordinances, decrees, *informes*, pamphlet relations, etc. One of the chief features of the collection is the linguistic department, which contains about 350 distinct titles of the various languages and dialects of the different peoples and tribes of the archipelago.

The manuscript division is one in which the owner can justly take pride, for Philippina manuscripts are offered for sale much less frequently than printed books. The greater part of the manuscript material relating to the Philippines is conserved in the archives of Spain, mainly in Seville; the various religious orders still own a number; as also do Dr. T. H. Pardo de Tavera and Señor Zulueta of Manila, the latter of whom was recently commissioned by the Philippine Government to collect copies of valuable manuscripts in Spain and other countries. The Ayer collection of manuscripts contains various originals and some valuable copies. The originals consist of reports, *informes*, letters, etc., some of them written on the perishable rice paper. Among the most important may be mentioned the following: 'Relacion del viaje e jornata que larmada de su mag. hizo del descubrimiento de las islas del poniente' (1565), one of the original duplicates sent to Spain and printed in 'Documentos inéditos relativos al descubrimiento' (Madrid, 1886), *second series*, ii. pp. 217-351; 'Cedulas reales dirigidas à estas yslas Filipinas' (containing decrees and instructions from the time of Legazpi to 1603); a series of letters officially copied from the Seville archives for Señor Zaragoza, which give important details of the life of Dr. Morga; documents regarding the English invasion of Manila in 1762; 'Demonstracion del mísero deplorable estado de las Islas Philipinas . . . por Don Francisco de Viana' (Manila, 1765), originally of the Retana collection, and a very important social and economic document; and 'Documentos, datos y relaciones para la historia de Filipinas' (copied from originals in Spanish archives by Ventura del Arco, a Spanish Government official, in 1859, in five volumes, octavo).

Thus, as is seen, this collection forms a good working library of original sources, which offers many rich nuggets to the student; and students in general may well take pride that America has citizens of sufficient public spirit to amass such collections.

JAMES ALEXANDER ROBERTSON,
Co-editor 'The Philippine Islands: 1493-1898.'

MADISON, WIS.

"BALLOT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is with hesitation and trembling that I intrude into these affairs of high statecraft with an inquiry on a mere matter of linguistic usage, but can you tell me by what authority the word "ballot" is used of a vote shouted in the ears of several thousand people? H. W. H.

NEW YORK, July 9, 1904

[May not a "ballot" be what is "bawled"?—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

That excellent manual of reference, William F. H. King's 'Classical and Foreign Quotations,' has long been at our elbow, and we are glad to learn that it is again to be revised and improved, in large measure by the diligence of the scholarly Ferdinand Hoffmann of Stockbridge, Mass. The new edition will be published by J. Whitaker & Sons, London.

Forthcoming from Macmillan Co. are 'The Alps,' by Sir W. M. Conway, with 75 plates in color after paintings by A. B. McCormick; 'The Burns Country,' by Charles S. Dougall, with 50 full-page photographic illustrations; 'Edinburgh and its Story,' by Oliphant Smeaton, with numerous illustrations, a part in color; 'The Diversions of a Music-Lover,' by C. L. Graves; 'Methods and Aims in Archæology,' by Prof. Flinders-Petrie; 'Shakspere Documents,' a chronological catalogue of extant evidence relating to the poet's life and works, by D. H. Lambert; and 'The Mother of Washington and her Times,' by Mrs. Roger A. Pryor.

The fourth volume of Dr. Reuben Gold Thwaites's reprints of "Early Western Travels, 1748-1846" (Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.) consists of Fortescue Cuming's 'Sketches of a Tour to the Western Country,' 1807-1809. Cuming was a cultivated and travelled Englishman, able to cheer an elderly couple from Dijon by speaking French to them, and to inspirit a shoemaker by playing the fiddle during his mendings. He was a good and a friendly observer of nature and manners and customs from Philadelphia to New Orleans, and his journal has a decided historical value. The thunderstorms of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys outcrashed all the naval broadsides in his experience. He has pictures of Indian life, of white drunken battles royal in which the man whose nose had been bitten off solaced himself with the gouged-out eye of his antagonist; of barrack-like inn bedrooms in which married couples and single men slept without scruple, and of much else of curious and permanent interest. How forcibly Western disillusion is conveyed in the outburst of a British seaman in a Mississippi bayou, stagnant, gloomy, airless, infested with mosquitoes: "And is it here you stop, and is this the country to which so many poor ignorant devils remove to make their fortunes?—D—n my precious eyes if I would not rather," etc.

The story of the trial of John Peter Zenger has never been so fully told as in Livingston Rutherfurd's volume on Zenger (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The arbitrary acts of Gov. Cosby and the attempt to plunder Rip van Dam led up to the persecution and trial of the poor New York printer, whose crime was a somewhat free expression of opinion on the conduct of the King's representative. Similar examples of attempts to muzzle the press may be found in the history of any of the colonies of North America, but the Zenger incident will always possess a special interest by reason of the ability of the defendant's attorney, Andrew Hamilton, and the general interest in the trial, which found expression in a fairly extensive "literature" of the subject. Hamilton's speech may still be read with pleasure for its quaint expression and good legal substance, and Mr. Rutherfurd's clear summary of the events and arguments is a telling restatement of this local contest, which aided freedom of speech and developed the law of libel in the direction of a freer press. A full reprint of the first edition of the 'Brief Narrative,' a bibliography of the issues of Zenger's press, including the New York *Weekly Journal*, and seventeen reproductions of portraits, manuscripts, broadsides, and title-pages, make a very attractive volume, worthy to rank with the same publishers' 'Hugh Gaine.'

'The Watchers of the Trails' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.) is a series of entertaining animal sketches by Mr. Charles G. D. Roberts. The stories are full of action, the brute heroes have a vivid personality, and the style is graceful and convincing. The author says of the book: "The stories of which this volume is made up are avowedly fiction. They are at the same time true, in that the material of which they are moulded consists of facts." One may wonder whether this statement wholly fits the story of a bear cub, captured during its very first stroll with its mother out from the den where it was born. It becomes a trick bear in a circus, and five years later, while travelling through the region where it was captured, it escapes, recognizes the lay of the land, and, with a tenacity of memory surpassing that of man, makes its way back to the old den. The author is evidently interested in the relation between the instincts bred by domestication and those native to the wild, and several of the most striking stories turn on that idea.

Mr. Clifton Johnson's art of pictorial bookmaking, hitherto employed in illustrating contemporary customs in many countries, has been used to good effect in the magazine articles now gathered together under the title 'Old-Time Schools and School Books' (Macmillan). Hundreds of facsimiles pertinent to the subject accompany a text not exactly read-

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able, but crammed with curious information about school buildings and appliances, and above all about text-books in our American experience. Massachusetts is Mr. Johnson's principal quarry, and he has had access to the most extensive text-book collections extant. He discourses on colonial schools of the eighteenth century, on district schools, grammar schools and academies, the New England Primer, Noah Webster's and other spelling-books, readers, arithmetics, geographies, and grammars. Numerous examples of the contents of these books are given. The survey is full enough to demand an index, but none is furnished. A line of inquiry not suggested here is the provenance of the designs in vogue. The peacock on page 369 is after Thomas Bewick (it appeared in the year following his death); so, probably, are the frog on page 228, and the mad bull on page 224.

Mr. Horace Hart's 'Rules for Compositors and Readers at the University Press, Oxford' (New York: H. Frowde), a little sixpenny manual for the leading English printing-house, has just reached its seventeenth edition (its third for public sale). Any house or person wishing to follow a first-rate authority in matters never wholly settled or to be settled, should possess themselves of this guide. Dr. Murray and Mr. Bradley of the Oxford English Dictionary have revised the list of spellings, and H. Stuart Jones and Robinson Ellis have supplied the rules for dividing Greek and Latin words. (Mr. Ellis's occasional doubts seem to indicate that he has made no extensive study of early printed Latin texts.) Dr. Murray is now and again at variance with the usage of the Press, as in spelling "Shakspere," and in writing "4 July, 1904," preferring *ax* to *axe*, etc. We ourselves forbear to italicise mêlée, naïveté, plébiscite, résumé, and some others in the list recommended on page 21; hyphenate fellow-men; make one word of headquarters; and are at no pains to "avoid such divisions as" star-vation, exal-tation, etc. But one may safely err with Mr. Hart.

Much has been written concerning New Zealand; perhaps as much as the world requires. No single book, however, contains so complete an account of the country and its people as that of M. André Siegfried, entitled 'La Démocratie en Nouvelle-Zélande' (Paris: Armand Colin). M. Siegfried writes admirably; his style is charming, and he is dispassionate without being unsympathetic. Of course his account of the political experiments that the New Zealanders are trying is of most interest; but what he has to say of the land and the manners of its inhabitants deserves attention. So far, according to M. Siegfried, socialism answers well. The few rich do not like to be deprived of their possessions, but the people find it pleasant to participate in them. If there is no increase in population and no corruption in the government, the present system may endure indefinitely.

The discussion as to the comparative childlessness of college educated women receives a new turn in the current *Popular Science Monthly*. A graduate of only a few years' standing writes that of her classmates none who has married has failed to become the mother of a healthy child within two years of marriage. Her thesis is that the type of the average college girl has undergone an important change within a very few years, and that this change warrants a very much brighter outlook for the future. The college girl of the older days was usually one whom some exceptional stress of circumstances forced to make the intellectual side of life predominant, to the sacrifice of other interests, from the grammar school up. This abnormal development of course tended to produce physical ill health and consequent unfitness for motherhood, even if it did not result in actual sterility. But with the rapidly increasing tendency of the sex to seek the higher education apart from any special stress of circumstances, the type of the college girl is ceasing to be abnormal, and in marriage and motherhood as in other things we may expect in the future to see the average college alumna just an ordinary woman, plus somewhat more than the ordinary amount of formal education. It is announced editorially that the *Monthly* has merged with itself the *Sanitarian*, which has done such good service in the prevention of disease, as the organ of its founder and editor, Dr. A. N. Bell, now in his eighty-fourth year, and anxious for rest.

In the latest issue of the *Nuova Antologia* Giovanni Livi publishes two entirely new documents which he declares contain the earliest mention of the 'Divine Comedy' of Dante. These documents were found among the writings of the old Memorial Institute of Bologna, in which all the contracts that were concluded in Bologna and its neighborhood are faithfully recorded. In a list of contracts made in the year 1325, a certain Antonio, son of Liculf of Padua, declares that he has received from Carlo, son of the Florentine Lapi, as the sixth in a series of articles, Dante's "Inferno," the entry reading: "A book which is called the Hell of Dante." Doubtless the "Purgatory" was included in this; the "Paradise" was published later.

Pius X. recently received in special audience the forty-two members of the Historical Institutes of Prussia, Austria-Hungary, France, England, and Belgium, and of the learned Catholic Goerres Society. The address to the Pope was delivered by Monsignor Dr. Fruknoi, of the Hungarian Institute, and consisted chiefly of thanks for his purpose to continue the liberal policy of his predecessor in opening the archives of the Vatican to the scholars of the world, which was done as early as 1880. The Pope replied that he had already at that date approved the policy of Leo XIII., and that this regulation was to become the fixed policy of the present reign.

Prof. Dr. von Grützner of the University of Tübingen, a vigorous protagonist of the temperance cause, recently addressed to all the academic societies of that university the question whether they would receive total abstainers as members. Of the thirty-two societies, with a total membership of 1,037, six, with a membership of 212, answered in the affirmative; eight, with a membership of 333, made the reception of such candidates dependent on certain conditions; nine, with 201 members, declared they would blackball such applicants; three societies, with 83 members, refused to commit themselves; and six societies, with 141 members, sent no reply. Professor Grützner concludes that the abstinence movement is making headway in university circles.

The revolution in education in China is still progressing. Within a few months the Government has established at Wuchang a school for the training of women as teachers. There are now eighty students in it. Of equal significance is the first annual report of the Imperial University of Shansi, a summary of which is given in the March-April number of the *South China Collegian*, published at Macao. This institution is, as it were, a memorial of the Boxer rebellion, for, instead of paying indemnities for the lives of the martyred missionaries, the Province has agreed to contribute 50,000 taels annually for ten years to its support, in order that the literati may secure a liberal education on modern lines. It consists of three departments—preparatory, Chinese, and Western. In this last the course is three years, during which the students give their whole attention to one subject, such as Law, Science, Medicine, Language, and Literature, or Engineering. Only the Chinese language is used, though there are six foreign professors, and tuition is free.

Moved by the letter recently published in these columns recommending the Italian time-table employment of the 24 hours, to the abolition of A. M. and P. M. and of consequent confusion, a Canadian correspondent sends us time-tables of the Canadian Pacific and Intercolonial Railways, exhibiting the Italian system in force there. The usage is fifteen years old, he informs us.

"Port Arthur-Mukden," on the whole the best war map we have seen, comes to us from Dietrich Reimer, Berlin (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It includes, on a scale of about 20 kilometres to the inch, the whole of the Liaotung peninsula and Mantchuria to a point well north of Mukden. Passes are plainly marked, names of towns abound, but not at the cost of clearness. It exacts considerable ingenuity on the part of the English reader to turn over the German orthography into the current forms; witness Hsiu-jan (Siu-yen) and Wi-Dschu (Wi-ju), and we miss in it the variant Telissu for Wafanku. It is thoroughly up to date, and is based apparently on a new Russian service map.

—Prof. John Bassett Moore describes in *Harper's* the various steps by which modern commerce on the seas has been freed, first from the depredations of piracy, and then from such trammels as the assumed rights of impressment and search. Henry Loomis Nelson contributes another paper on the West, not confining himself to the middle section, as in the June number. The optimism of the Westerner, his enthusiastic way of pushing his dreams into the realm of reality, is the quality which he finds most noteworthy. "There is no wool in the Western mind, and there is no decadence in the Western conscience." Brander Matthews discusses American satires in verse, giving first place, of course, to Lowell. As to the treatment of Bryant in the 'Fable for Critics,' we prefer Lowell's own later judgment to that of Professor Matthews, who pronounces the passage a true portrait, in spite of its artificial rhymes and ingenious puns. The editor discusses optimistically the possibilities and actual achievement of short-story writing under present conditions. There has been a great advance, he thinks, over the stories

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of a generation ago, nor has there been any real loss due to the unwritten laws which place a ban upon stories likely to offend religious, partisan, or moral sensibilities. The short story has not reached its best possibilities, has rarely met to the full the demands of the most cultivated readers, or rivalled successfully the greatest novels; but it has entered upon its highest estate, and attracted to itself an interest not yet wholly satisfied.

—'The Spanish Colonial System,' by Wilhelm Roscher (Henry Holt & Co.), a fifty-page pamphlet, is a translation into English of the chapter on this subject in Roscher's 'Kolonien, Kolonialpolitik und Auswanderung,' from the third Leipzig edition (1885). The publication is due to Prof. Edward G. Bourne of Yale, who has edited the translation and added some notes of a bibliographical character calculated to aid students dependent upon the English language. Professor Bourne states that this chapter, as "a broad historical and comparative treatment of the subject," has been of great aid to him, and he desired to make it available for class use and for collateral reading. He says, only too truly: "The treatments of [Spanish colonial history] in our ordinary text-books and in the popular narrative histories are at best inadequate and too often misleading, through the prejudice or lack of knowledge of their readers." Professor Bourne himself lately emphasized this fact in his introduction to Blair and Robertson's 'The Philippine Islands, 1493-1898.' If scant justice has been done by English and American writers to Spain and her generally humane aims (speaking of her *official* aims) in her early attempts at colonization, there is none the less a danger of going to the other extreme in judging too exclusively by the *letter* of the Spanish laws regarding treatment of the Indians, etc. It is precisely this danger which Roscher's pamphlet illustrates, and Professor Bourne himself has not escaped it. The chapter in question reeks of the library. Its author has drawn his data mainly from the Laws of the Indies (which are really less significant as illustrating the aims of the Spanish kings and of the ecclesiastics than as showing the multiplicity of abuses which had sprung up from the first, and which it was sought to remedy by high-sounding decrees from a distance) and from other expressions of official purpose. Moreover, not only do Roscher's researches among the sources need broadening by reference to the Spanish archives, which reveal more nearly what was the actual state of affairs in the colonies, but his authorities are also musty, and many of them discredited. The chapter is especially valuable in its paragraphs upon the economic policy of Spain, but it is by no means an adequate treatment of this subject, even for a monograph. Here, too, the bookishness of the German savant is very much in evidence; a little investigation would have shown Herr Roscher that the *situado* (appropriation, he translates it) annually sent to the Philippine Islands from Mexico was not a free subsidy granted to support the former colony, but the return to Manila of the share of her citizens in the Chinese goods shipped to Acapulco and of the duties collected at the latter port. This little pamphlet was well worth translating, and is especially valuable at this time, but it hardly deserves Professor Bourne's characterization of it.

—Gen. Herman Haupt, whose 'Reminiscences,' privately printed, are now given to the public (New York: John R. Anderson Co.), has been a striking figure in the history of railroad engineering in the United States. He had a strong belief in himself, a power of impressing his ideas on other people, and an ability to secure quick results. His rough and ready genius found its best opportunity in the days of the civil war, when for nearly a year and a half he had charge of the military railroads of the Government. Characteristic of this work was his feat of constructing in nine working days a bridge four hundred feet long and eighty feet above the bed of Potomac Creek. Lincoln described the structure as having "nothing in it but beanpoles and cornstalks." Numerous reproductions of photographs illustrate Haupt's devices for rendering useless the rails of a railroad, and the "blanket boats"—box frames covered with India rubber—used to ferry troops across streams. Gen. Haupt's narrative, which is made up largely of official correspondence, covers only the period of his military service. In the introductory biographical account by Frank A. Foster, the chief matter of importance is the explanation of Haupt's connection with the Hoosac Tunnel enterprise. His relations to this work, which were of many curiously different sorts, were terminated by the action of Gov. Andrew in 1861, and, in spite of the vigorous lobbying which Haupt carried on—an art in which he was past master—he never regained control of the work. Mr. Foster, of course, tells only one side of the story; even thus his narrative not only contains obvious self-contradictions, but is at variance with the facts as presented in Haupt's own memorial to the Massachusetts Legislature of 1863. Haupt's scheme was to get some sort of hole through the mountain, big enough for a single line of track, and he strove for speed rather than thoroughness. Work done on such terms, however, Massachusetts could hardly be justified in backing; and one need not go beyond this fact into investigations of Haupt's financial methods and the intrigues of the rival line of railroad, afterwards part of the Boston and Albany system, to decide that the State did well in refusing to allow him to continue the work.

—Prior to the publication in an English dress of Brandes's 'Romantic School in France' (Macmillan), the principal English aid to a study of French romanticism has been the translation of Pellissier's 'Le Mouvement Littéraire au XIXe Siècle.' But this excellent book, dealing with the realistic school as well, was confined in its view to France, while Omond's 'Romantic Triumph,' attempting to embrace romanticism in general, merely sketched the French school in one chapter. The work of Brandes is therefore welcome, as considering its subject first at adequate length, and second in relation to the European movement. Moreover, of the six volumes comprising the author's "Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature," this is by far the most sympathetic. It is written *con amore*. It is itself romantic in the French fashion. In sentences, in groupings of men, ideas, chapters, it has caught the antithesis so dear to the heart of Hugo. Beyle is contrasted with Sand, and Sand with Balzac, and Mérimée with Beyle. Of George Sand we are told, "Her page is always much superior to her word; Beyle's word is far better than his page"; or again, contrasting her with De Musset, "She 'knitted' her novels; he wrote his works in a brief, burning ecstasy." In its moral conceptions this book presents extreme romanticist views, unaffected by the erotic aberrations of every one of the group. It accepts Gautier's "l'art pour l'art," frankly declaring, "Life and art stand in entirely different relations to morality." It even compares poetry with physiology, "which certainly does not confine itself to subjects that are considered fit topics of conversation in polite society." From Brandes we get a vivid picture of personalities and productions, but no systematic account of ideas or their evolution. Something of the sort was tried in the volume dealing with the 'Romantic School in Germany'; here it is confined to a few remarks on changes in social and political notions. And in the larger work, as in this unit, there prevails the unwarrantable assumption that the terms "Romantic School" and "Romanticism" are interchangeable. Hence, perhaps, the failure to offer any comprehensive explanation of Romanticism itself, such, for example, as Herford has given by way of background in his admirable preface to 'The Age of Wordsworth.'

—Dr. D. Joseph, professor in the new University of Brussels, has published a history of architectural art in all ages in two octavo volumes with 773 illustrations—'Geschichte der Baukunst vom Altertum bis zur Neuzeit' (Berlin and New York: Bruno Hessling). Its characteristic is description, partly by printed text, partly in illustrations especially selected to give the reader a full sense of what the buildings discussed in the text are, and their scale is made very great that this kind of explanation may be more nearly perfect. If we should say that the proportion of text to pictures is about as one to one, we should not be far astray. No great attention is paid to plans and other measured or mechanical reproductions (sections and the like), and in this lies the chief objection to the book considered as a volume for serious study. In the early pages there are a few ground plans and plans of parts of buildings, the old-fashioned small-scale plans which are credited freely to different well-known books on architectural art; but when the subject is connected with the buildings that still exist nearly complete, nearly uninjured, good material for photography, plans and geometrical drawings disappear almost wholly in the crowd of half-tone prints as large as the page allows. Thus it happens that in volume ii., at the period of the Florentine Renaissance, there is a view of the Santo Spirito, one of the Pazzi Chapel, one of the Innocenti, one of the Palazzo Pitti, and a dozen more, all without any plan or section at all. It is not till we come to the very curious little church at Prato, whose plan elucidates also the better known churches at Montepulciano and at Cortona, that the plan and also a cross section taken from Laspeyres's book are called on to help out the photographic views. What little critical treatment is indulged in serves the purpose of tying together similar manifestations of art in dif-

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ferent countries, for Dr. Joseph's attention is fixed rather strongly upon the relation between contemporary work in adjoining and more distant lands. In this comparative study it has been necessary to call upon little-known lands and towns, so that even students who have a good collection of pictures will find much here that is new. The inquiry stops, however, with the Neoclassic of the eighteenth century—with the "Barock, Rokoko und Klassizismus"; under which head buildings are given which even a considerable experience may still have left unfamiliar to the reader.

HERBERT SPENCER'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

An Autobiography. By Herbert Spencer. Illustrated. In two volumes. D. Appleton & Co. 1904.

On page 423 of the first volume of this book Mr. Spencer observes:

"Most people frame very untrue, and often very absurd, conceptions of those who write books. They expect to find them differ from average persons in conspicuous ways. One may say that as a rule no man is equal to his book, though there are, I believe, exceptions. All the best products of his mental activity he puts into his book, where they are separated from the mass of inferior products with which they are mingled in his daily talk. And yet the usual supposition is that the unselected thoughts will be as good as the selected thoughts. It would be about as reasonable to suppose that the fermented wort of the distiller will be found of like quality with the spirit distilled from it. Nor is it only in respect of intellectual manifestations that too much is looked for from authors. There are also looked for, especially from authors of philosophical books, traits of character greatly transcending ordinary ones. The common anticipation is that they are likely to display contempt for things which please the majority of people."

He then proceeds to illustrate this doctrine by anecdotes of a Frenchman who was astonished to see him playing billiards at the Athenæum Club, and of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, who expressed surprise on board an Atlantic steamer at his telling a waiter that he had asked not for Cheshire cheese, but for Cheddar.

In this passage there is a moral for the Autobiography itself which doubtless escaped its author. Mr. Spencer tells us more about himself in its pages, more about his personal habits and ways and the daily course of his ordinary thoughts, than any one meeting him in society could have gathered from many interviews. The author, and indeed the philosophical author, is brought down to the level of common humanity with unsparing and unceasing frankness. It is an old remark, that not only the author, but the preacher also, ought not to be seen close at hand, because it becomes hard to idealize them, hard not to feel the contrast which exists more or less in all men between preaching on the one hand and practice on the other. Oliver Goldsmith and Bishop Wilberforce are familiar English examples of the rule; to be with them brought them sadly down from the poem and the pulpit. Yet it is a rule not without exceptions, for Dr. Johnson, uncouth and rude as he was, impressed people quite as much by his talk as by his writings, and Dr. Phillips Brooks never sank, in the eyes of those who knew him well, an inch below the ideal they had formed of him from his sermons. Does, then, Herbert Spencer suffer from the wonderful piece of self-disclosure contained in these 1,200 pages? That in some measure depends on the conception of him which the readers of the Autobiography have brought to it. His special disciples and admirers, together with that large public which, without knowing much about him, has taken him, on the faith of his admirers, to be a profound thinker and a constructive moralist, will be mortified to find this eminent person so full of vanity and self-consciousness, so intensely and perpetually occupied with himself, so ignorant of a hundred things which an educated man ought to know, so wanting in respect for great thinkers in the past, so devoid of humor and of that sort of common sense which social tact gives, so incapable of distinguishing between the commonplaces which every fairly intelligent man can pour forth, and truths that lie below the surface. But those, on the other hand, who, well knowing beforehand his intellectual deficiencies, have been driven, by the undue claims made for him, into a sort of opposition and disparagement, will be led by the extraordinary candor and naïveté of these confessions to take a lenient view of, and even to cherish a certain tenderness for, a man so simple, so direct, so obviously anxious to say the truth—and neither more nor less than the truth—about himself.

Amiable, Mr. Spencer is not; at least he does not so paint himself. He dwells over and over again upon his neglect and disregard of other people's feelings. Here are some of his judgments on his own character. Discussing his inferiority to his father in the sentiment and habit of active beneficence, and attributing this to his greater inertia—for he always describes himself as naturally indolent—

"The infliction of pain or the witnessing of pain inflicted," he says, "has ever been repugnant to me—save, indeed, under the excitement of argument, when I have usually shown but little regard for the feelings of opponents" (vol. ii., p. 501).

"No one will deny that I am much given to criticism. And if this is a trait in my writing, still more is it a trait in my conversation. The tendency to fault-finding is dominant — disagreeably dominant. The indicating of errors in thought and speech made by those around, has all through life been an incurable habit—a habit for which I have often reproached myself—to no purpose" (p. 512).

"This abnormal tendency to criticise has been a chief factor in the continuance of my celibate life. Readiness to see inferiorities rather than superiorities must have impeded the finding of one who attracted me in adequate degree. But it is far from the fact that I have a deficient appreciation of physical beauty. Physical beauty is a *sine qua non* with me; as was once unhappily proved where the intellectual traits and the emotional traits were of the highest" (p. 520).

"Frequently, when prospects are promising, dissatisfaction follows marriage rather than satisfaction; and in my own case the prospects would not have been promising. I am not by nature adapted to a relation in which perpetual compromise and great forbearance are needful. That extreme critical tendency which I have above described, joined with a lack of reticence no less pronounced, would, I fear, have caused perpetual domestic differences. After all, my celibate life has probably been the best for me, as well as the best for some unknown other" (p. 540).

This pathetic passage is a good instance of the way in which a philosopher who seeks to investigate or pronounce upon social phenomena, may omit the most vital and decisive factor in the whole problem. He assumes that "perpetual compromise and great forbearance" are essential to a peaceful conjugal life, ignoring the influence of love, or forgetting that, where it is present in sufficient force, there are no occasions for compromise and no need for forbearance. (As he was never himself in love, his ignorance was natural. But where he was ignorant, he had no right to speak so positively.)

A reader who should take these and other passages literally might form a wrong impression of Mr. Spencer's character. Though incessantly occupied with himself, down to the recording of all those instances in which some passing ailment or some over-exertion weakened his powers of work, he was very far from being an unkindly man, or a selfish one in the common sense of the word. There is, indeed, in the book abundant evidence of his attachment to his friends. He was full of courage, a disinterested and pertinacious champion of the causes (usually unpopular causes) which he felt it his duty to advocate. He was not jealous of other reputations. He was entirely superior to the love of money or of public distinctions, and not more elated than even a philosopher is permitted to be, at the recognitions which came to him from his numerous admirers. He had a strong sense of justice and was perfectly loyal to truth. With all his vanity he could see the faults even in that point about which authors are usually most sensitive—his literary style. He writes:

"In so far as giving coherence and completeness [to my arguments] is concerned, I have generally satisfied my literary ambition; but I have fallen short of it in respect of literary form. The æsthetic sense has in this always kept before me an ideal which I could never reach. Though my style is lucid, it has, as compared with some styles, a monotony that displeases me. There is a lack of variety in its verbal forms and in its larger components, and there is a lack of vigor in its phrases. But the desire for perfection has in this, as in the building up of arguments, prompted unceasing efforts to remove defects" (vol. ii., p. 527-8).

After reading this, one is inclined to forgive Mr. Spencer not only for the dismal dulness of his way of writing, which has made so many people abandon the attempt to read any one of his books right through to the end, but even his extraordinarily assured judgments on the work of others, as when, after describing the failure of his efforts to read Plato, because he was "impatient with the indefiniteness of the thinking and the mistaking of words for things, being repelled also by the rambling form of the arguments," he adds: "Still, quotations from time to time met with lead me to think that there are in Plato detached thoughts from which I might benefit had I the patience to seek them out. The like is probably true of other ancient writings"(!!) (vol. ii., p. 517).

Nearly the whole of these bulky volumes is occupied either with the details, often very trivial, of Mr. Spencer's daily life, or with an account of the genesis of his principal books. Those who attach great importance to the so-called "Synthetic Philosophy" will, of course, value this account, and even for others it is not without interest. There are also three things less in

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quantity, but better in literary quality, which deserve to be noted. One consists of the opinions he expresses on some of his eminent contemporaries. These opinions are but few, and we wish they had been more numerous, for they are written with vigor, and they throw a curious reflected light back upon Mr. Spencer himself. Of John Stuart Mill he writes with real appreciation of the elevation and generosity of soul which belonged to that excellent man; and he speaks in a warm and friendly strain of G. H. Lewes also, though in neither case does he give a finished portrait, nor show any special power of penetration. For Ruskin's writings he had, as might be expected, outspoken contempt.

"On opening Mr. Ruskin's 'Stones of Venice,' I found myself called upon to admire a piece of work which seemed to me sheer barbarism. My faith in his judgment was at once destroyed, and thereafter I paid no further attention to his writings than was implied by reading portions quoted in reviews or elsewhere. These, joined with current statements about his sayings and doings, sufficiently justified the opinion I had formed. Doubtless he has a fine style, writes passages of great eloquence, and here and there expresses truths; but that one who has written and uttered such multitudinous absurdities should have acquired so great an influence, is to me both surprising and disheartening" (vol. i., p. 403).

But his severest denunciations are reserved for Thomas Carlyle, whom, after having been taken to pay three or four visits, he found it best to see no more, because "I must either listen to his absurd dogmas in silence, which it was not in my nature to do, or get into fierce argument with him, which ended in our glaring at one another."

The second thing is his elaborate study of his various ancestors and relatives in the ascending line—a study conducted for the sake of showing what were the hereditary influences at work upon him. Among these are descriptions of his father, George Spencer, and his uncle, Thomas Spencer, which bring both men before us very clearly and vividly. They are as good as anything in the book, except perhaps the last part of it (the third of the noteworthy things above referred to). This part was written four years after the rest as a sort of postscript, and contains, under the title "Reflections," thoughts upon the relations of bodily constitution to mental phenomena, which pass into an analysis of his own intellectual and moral qualities, and end with a statement of the changes which his views on politics and religion underwent in later years. The last few pages are striking, and even rise into a sort of eloquence.

The book, taken all in all, will not raise its author's fame as an original thinker. There is, indeed, a curious want of fertility about it. He has, for instance, very little to say about America which is either novel or instructive, though he paid a tolerably long visit and saw people well worth seeing. But it gives the impression both of an extremely active mind, always searching for causes, and of an upright and firm character; and the very simplicity at which we smile leaves us in a frame of kindliness to one who was too serious to be ever cynical, and too bent on truth to be ever worldly. Even the composition of the book was not more due to the interest he felt in himself than to the belief he held that it is every man's duty to supply to science as many data for inquiry into psychological phenomena as his own experience can furnish. This he has certainly done; seldom has an autobiography better deserved to be called by the now popular name of a "human document," the complete unveiling of the things which most men conceal.

Manchuria: Its People, Resources, and Recent History. By Alexander Hosie, M. A., F. R. G. S., author of 'Three Years in Western China.' With map, diagram, and illustrations. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904. Pp. xii., 293.

The preface to this volume is dated December, 1900, but it deals so carefully and minutely with the conditions existing in Mantchuria that it is of great service in helping to an understanding of the questions at issue in the Russo-Japanese war, and of the probable progress of the campaign now going on. The volume is accompanied by a map which is a partial reproduction of the one prepared by the Chinese Eastern Railroad Company, substituting English transliterations for Russian. There are also thirty excellent photogravures, giving a vivid picture of many of the most interesting scenes and objects of the country. Though written by an Englishman, the volume bears no traces of antagonism to Russia, but seemingly treats all questions in an impartial manner. The chief value of the book consists in the fact that it is a detailed and painstaking account of the physical features of the country, of the agricultural and mineral products, and of the people themselves, with their special industries. The author also gives a detailed account of a journey from Newchwang to Kirin in the winter of 1895, as well as of his journey home through Siberia in 1900. In the volume will be found almost everything which the ordinary reader will wish to know concerning the region.

Mr. Hosie estimates the population to be about 17,000,000, nine-tenths of whom, however, are Chinese rather than Mantchus; and it is mostly confined to the southern province now occupied by the contending armies. As is often the case with other nations, so with the Mantchus—their success in war was the beginning of their decline. Following the conquest of China in the middle of the seventeenth century, the Mantchus remained in the conquered territory in large numbers to become a military caste. There, ever since, their descendants, in reward for slight military service rendered, are pensioned, as are also the majority of the Mantchus of mature age in their home country. This pension, while not sufficient to give them adequate support, is enough to take away from them that stimulus to earn a livelihood and to better their condition which, as the author says, "goes to make men and nations." The difficulty of drawing the Government pension while away from home prevents the pensioner from venturing out, as the Chinese do, to engage in enterprises of profit that might open to them elsewhere.

The area of Mantchuria is nearly 400,000 square miles, or about as large as the portion of the United States lying east of the Mississippi River and north of the Ohio, excluding New England. The country is full of undeveloped resources, since the Chinese Government has never established an orderly government over the northern provinces, and has, indeed, discouraged immigration into them. The result is that at the present time Russian settlers, to the number of nearly 2,000,000, are surrounding the northern half of Mantchuria upon three sides, and are led to cast wistful eyes upon its unoccupied land and upon the short lines of communication afforded by crossing this alien territory. The temptation is not unlike that which urges to unlawful aggression on the part of our own Western pioneers upon the Indian reservations. All these things should be taken into account in criticising the efforts of the Russian Government to open lines of communication across the country, and to secure such an orderly government that property could be protected and the regular settlement of the country encouraged.

For some years past, Niu-Chwang has been almost the only port open to commerce, and this because, before the construction of the railroad, there was no other port to which the produce of the country could be brought. The description given by the author of the traffic between Niu-Chwang and the interior is very interesting. During the spring, summer, and autumn the roads are so poor and the mud is so deep that extensive traffic by land is impossible. During that period, therefore, resort is had to boats of every sort, such as can descend the Liao River and its branches. Mr. Hosie estimates that 20,000 come down the river in a single season; but in the winters, which are very cold, the thermometer frequently falling below —30 degrees Fahrenheit, there is a constant stream of carts laden with the produce of the interior, bound for Niu-Chwang, where it will await the opening of navigation and the transfer to other countries by Chinese junks.

The unsettled condition of the territory is vividly described in the account which the author gives of the robber bands, of which such frequent mention is made in connection with the present war. These bands, well mounted and armed,

"swoop down on the villages, caravans of goods and travellers, and plunder and rob without mercy. Even the great trade highways of the province are infested with them. . . . Officials are sometimes carried off and held to ransom. There can be little doubt that these brigands have agents in the principal towns who keep them informed regarding the movement of treasure and valuables. . . . Indeed, brigandage in Mantchuria has given rise to the establishment of private insurance offices throughout the country. These undertake for a commission the safe conduct of goods and treasure from one place to another. Each office supplies the trader with its own distinctive triangular scalloped flag, which is planted on each cart in the caravan, and a few armed men are sent as a nominal guard. It is generally understood that the insurance offices have to pay blackmail to the brigands to insure respect for their flags, as the insurance guards are too weak to resist any determined attack. . . . Brigandage has practically become a profession in the central province; and even in the southern province, where it is less rampant, parents have been overheard discussing the advisability of fitting out their sons as highwaymen when everything else failed, and even a ragged mendicant bewailing his luck has been known to express the opinion that it would be far more profitable for him to be a brigand than a beggar, and that he only lacked the funds to secure an outfit" (pp. 169, 170).

It will be interesting to the critics of the present military situation who have ex-

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patiated so much upon the inadequacy of the single-track Trans-Siberian Railroad to furnish supplies to a large Russian army in Mantchuria, to learn that 500,000 tons of beans are annually exported from the region—that is, a ton of beans for every Russian soldier if the army should be increased to half a million. The most important crop, however, is the tall millet (*Holcus sorghum*, L.), which furnishes food for both man and beast, and at the same time provides fuel and material for covering houses. But this is nearly all consumed in the country. Mantchuria is also an ideal wheat field, especially the northern provinces, so that flour is cheaper in Harbin than it is in Minneapolis. Indian corn, buckwheat, and barley are also raised in great quantities. The Russian army, therefore, is not likely to perish of starvation. Indeed, it is in an ideal situation for carrying on a prolonged contest with a Power advancing from the sea.

Encyclopædia Medica: Edited by Chalmers Watson, M. D., etc. Longmans, Green & Co. Vols. 7 to 13 inclusive. 1904.

The first six volumes of this important work have already been noticed in these columns, and the additional seven volumes to which we now call attention make the set complete. The whole may be taken as one of the fullest expressions of English thought on the nature, prevention, and cure of disease, and its contents are presented in such an excellent typographical form that the reading is easy and pleasant. If we might judge the Encyclopædia by its best articles, we could give it almost unqualified praise, and indeed it is well known that when a cultivated Englishman delivers himself upon a topic which he has really mastered, his exposition is certain to deserve attention both for its matter and for its style. Each one of the seven volumes contains papers which are of much importance and are likewise of interest to the general reader.

The reports of the Lunacy Commissioners of Scotland have always been regarded as authoritative, and the article by one of them, J. F. Sutherland, M.B., on the subject of "Lunacy" is therefore welcome. After a careful discussion of the question as to whether insanity is increasing, this writer says; "A full and fair consideration of the data available [for Great Britain] warrants the conclusion that the liability to insanity is not greater in the community now than formerly." He admits that the figures seem to tell another story, but gives four reasons to account for this: First, that the patients with relatively slight mental derangements are now classified in the official registers as insane; second, that aged persons are oftener treated in institutions and in private dwellings now than formerly; third, that well-to-do families are more ready than they used to be to hand over their insane members to the care of others; and, fourth, that the poorer portion of the community is more and more inclined to demand public aid. It is well known that the practice of boarding out the insane has obtained more fully in Scotland than in any other country, and in view of that fact the following statement is also noteworthy.

"From what has been written it will be apparent that the 'boarding-out' system of Scotland has had a long and successful history during the past forty-four years, and that such a system, *mutatis mutandis*, should have a distinct place in the lunacy administration of every country in which the individual treatment of the insane or the nearest possible approach to it, in which a normal existence as opposed to a conventional one, and in which the happiness and greater freedom of the patient among those of his own class, are aimed at. The present position of the system, as well as its extension, is also amply justified on economic grounds as well as by the singular immunity to the insane themselves from those accidents incidental to the general and to asylum populations, and from special accidents of the sexual, suicidal, and homicidal order, and by a remarkable immunity from similar accidents to the communities in which they reside, whose amenities and safety cannot really be said to have suffered during the forty-four years of its history."

"Malaria" is admirably dealt with by Dr. D. C. Rees of the London School of Tropical Medicine, in the light of the newer views respecting transmission of the disease by mosquitoes. This article is fifty pages in length, is excellently illustrated, and inspires the reader with a sense of entire satisfaction. "Maternal Impressions" are deposed from their pedestal as causes of mischief in an interesting paper by J. W. Ballantine. In spite of much popular belief to the contrary, it may be safely said that definite impressions have no power to perpetuate themselves as such. This has been the question really at stake, and since it is clearly shown that it can be answered in the negative, the scientific reasoner may be ready to admit in his turn that the state of the mind during pregnancy may in a very general sense affect the condition of the child. The article on the "History of Medicine," by E. F. Willoughby, is also one which the general reader as well as the practitioner can turn to with interest and profit. Francis Warner, well known for good work upon the diseases of school children, contributes an interesting paper of ten pages on the subject of "Physiognomy and Expression," and the statement which he makes fully justifies his claim that the facts here presented suggest principles by which we may be guided in making inferences as to mode of brain action in various mental states, as well as to the condition of brain disturbances. The descriptions and directions for examination which are here given should be familiar to every student of school hygiene. The important subject of "Tuberculosis" is also thoroughly discussed in an article of forty-five pages by Theodore Shennan, pathologist of the Royal Infirmary, Edinburgh, which seems to contain everything of fundamental importance relating to the scientific and clinical aspects of the problem. Especially timely is the full treatment of the subject of tuberculosis of animals as compared with men. This has been a topic of acute interest ever since Koch's pronouncement of two years ago denying the possibility of contagion through cow's milk. This opinion is not sustained by the evidence which Dr. Shennan has collected.

On the other hand, the standard of excellence represented by these articles is not maintained as uniformly as one might expect, and some of the papers are marked by a certain crudeness in both conception and execution and are occasionally lacking in accuracy. An illustration of this last criticism is afforded by a statement in the article, otherwise excellent in many respects, upon "normal and morbid sleep." The writer discusses a theory of sleep which is based on the assumption that the nerve cells have a certain power of expanding and retracting their processes and thus altering their anatomical relations to each other; but instead of attributing this power to the nerve cell, he gives it to the "neuroglia," and says, "It is supposed that the pseudopods of the neuroglia are possessed with the properties of extending and contracting. When extension or relaxation occurs, the pseudopods intervene between the cells and their protoplasmic processes and the nerve branches, so that the passage of nerve current is either entirely stopped or considerably impeded, the amœboid movement of the neuroglia thus acting as the isolation of the nerve current." The writer seems, here, to have confounded a theory once offered by Cajal with the amœboid nerve-cell theory of Rückhard and Duval. We are surprised, in looking over the article on "Typhoid Fever," to see how inadequate is the discussion of the theory and mode of administration of the cold-bath treatment. It has long been apparent that the subject of hydrotherapeutics has hitherto been neglected in England, and we have here an illustration of the fact. The cold bath is, to be sure, favored, but its mode of action is assumed to be that of an antipyretic only, and practically nothing is said about the significance of the "reaction," as indicating a tonic improvement in the circulation and the metabolism, which the best authorities consider as the important element in the treatment.

The American publication which stands nearest to the Encyclopædia is the 'Reference Hand-Book of the Medical Sciences,' now in process of publication. The latter will occupy a somewhat smaller number of volumes than the former, but, as it is printed in smaller type and double columns and on thinner paper, it will contain considerably more material, and the topics which are made the subject of brief statement or cross-reference are very much more numerous than in the English work. This, as it seems to us, is a distinct advantage. One wishes an Encyclopædia to have, in some measure, the qualities of a dictionary—that is, to be a book where it is possible to find, in alphabetical order, at least a guiding word on a great variety of topics. For example, volume eight of the Encyclopædia contains the subjects between Liver and Menopause, and it happens that the number of words given to the subjects within this range is not very different from the number employed for the same purpose in the 'Hand-Book of the Medical Sciences'; yet in the latter work more than twice as many minor topics are dealt with, either by a few words or by reference to headings under which they are to be found treated of at greater length.

As regards the arrangement of the different articles, we feel inclined to repeat a criticism which was brought forward in our review of the first six volumes, namely, that sub-topics are too often, and, as it seems to us, unnecessarily, divorced from the main subject to which they are naturally related. Thus "Refraction" and "Retina and Optic Nerve" are made the subjects of good articles standing quite apart from the other

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papers on diseases of the eye. So, too, "Sciatica" is rather scantily treated of in two pages, with little reference to other forms of neuritis, and much the same may be said of a paper on the "Lumbar Region." To sum up, in this large work we have a collection of articles which, in the main, are excellent and valuable, but which do not cover the whole subject of medicine quite as completely as one might wish, and are not always arranged in the manner best calculated to afford instruction.

New Hampshire: An Epitome of Popular Government. By Frank B. Sanborn. (American Commonwealths.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904. Pp. 354.

The late Mr. Justice Strong, after his retirement from the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States, being one day questioned as to a certain passage in one of his opinions, took shelter in the response: "Well, a judge, you know, always writes his opinion in a strait-jacket." In like vein we might speak of any one who has engaged to add a volume to this excellent American Commonwealths series. Material is so abundant that an author must possess, in addition to historical instinct, a fine sense of proportion, as well as the faculty of concise narration. Mr. Sanborn has achieved a literary success. He is the master of a style so charming, if not without its lapses,* that the reader who takes up this book will keep on reading until he finds that he is acquiring (if he had it not before) a personal liking for the author himself. In a frank and sweet-tempered tone the writer tells the story of the settlement, growth, and prosperity of his native State.

Mr. Sanborn is a man of letters, for when he would have you know that there are twenty mountains in the State that exceed 4,000 feet in height, he adds, "higher, that is, than Cithæron in Attica." But he is more: he has enjoyed an experience in the administration of public charities, has known intimately public men and measures. He has improved these opportunities to observe how far current history is shaped by leaders; and when he takes up the pen to write of the past, he sketches this or that public man and fixes his rank with a fair estimate of his influence. When Mr. Sanborn writes of institutions, such as hospitals, prisons, and the like, it is as one having authority; and he points to statistics which seem to settle the question—if there be a question.

New Hampshire has suffered from the fact that hitherto her history has been written chiefly from the Puritan standpoint. Dr. Jeremy Belknap's work is a classic, but the author was of Massachusetts birth and a clergyman, and was in some directions deprived of original material long since accessible to us. Half a century ago a new school of investigators, natives of New Hampshire, began to bring to light facts proving that much already written about the early settlement of the State needed to be corrected. Mr. Sanborn has judiciously availed himself of the labors of these local historians.

Having spoken of merits, we shall proceed to point out a few instances in which the writer has fallen into error, in the hope that in a second edition all such blemishes will have disappeared. At page 2 we read: "Captain Mason must be called the founder of New Hampshire, which it is doubtful if he ever saw, though he gave the Colony its name, and furnished a name for its first city, Portsmouth—deriving both from southern England, where for years he was governor of Portsmouth." Mason did *not* give the name to what is now Portsmouth, formerly Strawberry Banke. That name *originated* in a petition—the same that is referred to by Mr. Sanborn at page 44—from Puritan inhabitants of the settlement in 1653, addressed to the General Court at Boston. They asked to have the bounds of the place laid out, and gave reasons why it should be called Portsmouth. To honor Mason was farthest from their minds. Portsmouth is *not*, nor has it ever been, the "first city" of New Hampshire, either in point of population or date of charter. Capt. Mason certainly was not Governor of Portsmouth "for years." He was made Captain of Southsea Castle, a fortress at the entrance of the harbor of Portsmouth, in 1634, and he died in 1635. It is more than doubtful whether Mason was ever "Governor" at all. The records show that Sir Edward Cecil, Viscount Wimbledon, was Governor of Portsmouth from 1630 to 1638 (Robert East, 1891, p. 637). Spight prints a copy of an order by Wimbledon as Governor, dated October, 1635, and Mason did not die until November (or, some say, December) of that year. Besides, upon the tablet set up in the Garrison Chapel of Domus Dei by New Hampshire contributors (some of them heirs of Mason) the inscription recites that Mason was Captain of Southsea Castle. No mention is made of his having been Governor. In fine, we may say that all the evidence points to the conclusion that Mason never reached this greater distinction. It is fair to say that Mr. Sanborn here only follows Belknap and other writers.

Mr. Sanborn says that Mason or his friends sent over several persons who fell within the description of "a loyal clergy selected by careful English bishops, who should preach passive obedience" (p. 9). It would be difficult, we fancy, to name even three or four of these "several" clergymen so "sent over."

In his earliest mention of Webster, our author remarks: "His manly eloquence was first exhibited at Washington in opposing the administration of Madison and the war with England; his antagonists being Calhoun and Clay, with whom for more than thirty years afterward he was either in conjunction or opposition—seldom carrying his measures, but always superior in oratory" (p. 247). The allusion is to the speech delivered in January, 1814. Mr. Clay took no part in the debate. He was Speaker, but he resigned that office on the day Webster first spoke, and soon afterwards went on a diplomatic mission to Europe.

Of New Hampshire's conduct in the war for the Union we read:

"Among those who raised and commanded regiments of volunteers for the war were a nephew of President Pierce, two of the Congressmen, Gilman Marston and Mason Weare Tappan, T. J. Whipple, an eccentric officer of the regular army, and others who distinguished themselves in battle or siege. In the navy, conspicuous commanders were Admiral Winslow of the *Kearsarge*, which sunk the corsair *Alabama;* his lieutenant, Thornton, descended from Matthew Thornton; Admiral Belknap, and others" (pp. 310-11).

Marston was a Congressman, and he commanded, but he did not raise, a regiment. Tappan raised and commanded a regiment, but he was not a Congressman, his term having expired before the war began. Whipple was not an officer of the regular army. He was a brilliant ("eccentric" is an epithet that may or may not apply) lawyer, who had been a lieutenant in the Mexican war, but he resigned in 1848 and returned to the practice of his profession. Captain (not Admiral) Winslow commanded the *Kearsarge*. He was born in North Carolina and appointed from that State, and had no connection with New Hampshire. Thornton, the executive, was a lieutenant-commander, who deserves unstinted praise for fighting the ship. The fact should have been stated that nearly the entire crew were New Hampshire men, enlisted from Portsmouth and its neighborhood. Belknap was a lieutenant-commander during the war. Fully as conspicuous was John Grimes Walker, also a lieutenant-commander, now a rear-admiral on the retired list and the head of the Panama Commission. Not a word is said of Dix or Butler, both of New Hampshire birth.

Mr. Sanborn seems determined to keep John P. Hale out of the Senate during the war. At page 298 and again at page 311 he sends Hale to Spain in 1861. Of course, it should be 1865. Hale served a full term as Senator from New Hampshire, until March 4 of the latter year.

When our author touches upon the subject of public libraries, he omits to tell us that to his native State belongs the honor of being the first in the Union to pass a law authorizing towns to grant money to establish and maintain a free library.

The volume is handsomely printed and has a good index.

*Thus, at page 299 we read: "It is noteworthy that for a brief period in 1851-52, six of the most active statesmen and publicists of the nation, Webster, Cass, Greeley, Hale, Chase, and Pierce, were all born in the small State," etc.

The Fall of Feudalism in Ireland, or the Story of the Land League Revolution. By Michael Davitt. Harper & Bros.

Mr. Davitt's name is pretty familiar all over the world. He was a principal actor in the events related in this book, and had exceptional opportunities of knowing the undercurrents of the movement he describes. Convicted of Fenianism at the age of twenty, he spent eight years in penal servitude. Released on ticket of leave, he devoted himself to the service of the Irish people, and took a leading part in the Land League revolution, which, he says, "sprang without leaders from the peasantry." Under the coercion régime with which the British Government sought in vain to repress the new spirit, Davitt served several short terms in prison for speeches in support of a constitutionally organized resistance against the Irish land system. He entered Parliament, and resigned after a few years as a protest against the South African war.

As far as possible for one who was a leader in the movement, Mr. Davitt sinks his own personality, and, though the story is told with intense bitterness, the bitterness is against the system, not against persons. The movement which commenced in 1879 by the establishment of the Land League of Mayo was

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the first organized resistance to "landlordism" in Ireland. The crash in agricultural prices in 1878-9 had left the rackrented peasantry at the mercy of the landowners and their agents. In former periods of distress, in the great famine of 1847, the people paid their rents, suffering starvation, or left their homes and died on the roads and in the ditches. With a few exceptions it had been the teaching of the clergy and the popular leaders that it was preferable to die rather than "defraud the landlord of his rent." Another gospel had been preached by a few. Archbishop Hughes in New York said: "There is no law of heaven, no law of nature, that forbids a starving man to seize on bread wherever he can find it, even though it should be the loaves of propitiation on the altar of God's temple." As a curate, Archbishop Croke had preached the same gospel, and, in spite of the unmeasured condemnation of the League by other Irish bishops, he was a stout upholder of Land League principles in 1880.

The Land League was inaugurated at a meeting held to protest against evictions threatened by a Catholic priest, acting as executor of his brother, who had raised the rents to an impossible figure. Archbishop McHall denounced those who held the meeting. In the House of Commons the chief secretary described the leaders as "a clerk in a commercial house, a discharged schoolmaster, and a convict on ticket of leave," and the meeting as of no importance. This was received with loud laughter and cheers, but "behold how great a matter a little fire kindleth." From the despised meeting sprang the Irish Land League, the National League, the National Federation, and the United Irish League. Each of these has in its turn been suppressed or "proclaimed." Special coercion acts administered by subservient "removable" magistrates were passed; thousands of citizens were imprisoned on suspicion, or for offences which were crimes only in Ireland; the guarantees of personal liberty under the British Constitution were suspended; juries were shamelessly packed; spies and *agents provocateurs* were employed by the Government; men and women were shot or bayoneted by the police in suppressing or dispersing otherwise peaceful meetings. For whistling popular tunes or singing Land League ballads, men, women, and children were arrested. By such means the Government kept the agitation alive, and occasionally revived it when almost dead. Such is the story told by Mr. Davitt with many graphic incidents, tragic, and sometimes humorous.

The cost of the struggle was heavy. The national organizations received not less than $6,000,000 at home and from abroad. It was spent in relief of distress, in supporting evicted tenants and their families, in Parliamentary and election expenses, on lawyers in state trials, in payment of organizers and publishing Land League literature. What the Government spent in combating the movement is beyond computation. Besides extra police, additional magistrates, heavy fees to lawyers in the state trials, and spies, there were many military expeditions, most of which were ludicrous fiascos. Towns and villages were often surrounded with police and soldiers, and every house searched, usually in vain, for arms. Two thousand soldiers were sent to Mayo to protect fifty emergency men sent down to save Capt. Boycott's harvest. This was one of the few sucessful military operations of the campaign. The career of Parnell, the conspiracy of the London *Times*, abetted by the Government; the trial of the Land Leaguers, at which the forgeries of Pigott were so dramatically exposed—are a political romance; a true story, stranger than any fiction, told by the person who best knew the plots and counterplots of the case, the chief actors, and spies so lavishly paid.

Much, but not all that was aimed at, has been won. The bonds of landlordism have been broken, and its political power crushed. The last chapter, "A Future Racial Programme," contains a fair statement of the present political and financial relations between Ireland and England, and points out in moderate language what Irish reformers still desire to accomplish, and the lessons that may be learned from what has been done in the last quarter of a century. The leaders in this prolonged and partially successful movement were poor, some very poor men. The offences for which they were prosecuted, fined, and imprisoned were committed not for private profit, but from a sense of public duty. Were they wrong? "Go into the length and breadth of the world," said Mr. Gladstone, "ransack the literature of all countries, find if you can a single voice, a single book, in which the conduct of England toward Ireland is anywhere treated except with profound and bitter condemnation."

Mr. Davitt's book will interest others besides Irish readers. Cobden's prophecy that the crash of feudalism would be first heard in Ireland has been fulfilled, and the lessons taught by the Irish movement are likely to bear fruit in England. Mr. Davitt's concluding chapter is an earnest appeal for home rule in the interests of the British as well as of the Irish people.

Letters and Social Aims.—Poems. By Ralph Waldo Emerson. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

These are volumes viii. and ix. of the centenary edition of Emerson's Works. The notes in no way fall short of the standard of excellence set by the first volume of the set. There are about ninety pages of these in the prose volume, and about 115 in the 'Poems,' the difference being less than we expected. The filial editor avails himself of a preface to 'Letters and Social Aims' to pay a handsome tribute to Mr. J. E. Cabot, Emerson's biographer *par excellence*, and in a very special manner Emerson's assistant in the preparation of this volume for the press at the time of its first publication in 1874. So liberal was his help in the choice and arrangement of the matter that Emerson disclaimed all credit for the good fortune of the book—in speaking of it to Mr. Cabot always calling it "your book." An interesting feature of this volume, as of those preceding it, is the identification of persons left by Emerson within the veil of anonymity. The identifications are not always flattering—that of Thoreau, in one place, for example: "I have seen a man of genius who made me think that if other men were like him, coöperation would be impossible. Must we always talk for victory and never once for truth, for comfort or for joy?" Very different is "an American to be proud of," who is identified with John M. Forbes. To the splendid pages accorded him in the essay "Social Aims," we have an addition of two pages in the notes taken from Emerson's journal. Sometimes the identification mars the original effect, as where Lewis Cass proves to have been one of the interlocutors in a very impressive story which finds its place in the essay on "Immortality." The folly of arguing from this essay to Emerson's latest opinion on the subject is evident when we are told that parts of the essay are divided by a width of fifty years. Many of the essays in this and other volumes are subject to the stress of this bewildering circumstance. Mr. M. D. Conway would fain persuade himself and us that Emerson was Darwinian (not merely evolutionist) five years before the appearance of the 'Origin of Species.' But the editor informs us that Mr. Conway's conclusive paragraph is missing in the lecture of 1854, and believes that Emerson inserted it much later. Darwin is mentioned in the paragraph, but Mr. Conway thought Erasmus Darwin, the grandfather (the editor writes "the father") of Charles Darwin, was intended.

The changes in this edition of the 'Poems' from the Riverside edition, the fullest heretofore, are considerable in number and importance. "The Sphinx" no longer confronts us on the threshold; in its place we have the earlier "Good-bye, proud world!" With Emerson's poems addressed to Ellen Tucker, his first wife, are placed two of her poems, not undeserving the juxtaposition. Nearly all the poems printed in the Riverside appendix are retained, and a few are added. A few others have been transposed from the appendix to a series of some twenty early poems which have much interest of an autobiographical character, and a good deal beside. If the lyrical is the subjective, these poems are intensely lyrical. Their form is better than that of the poems written in Emerson's next and most fruitful period, but much more conventional. The son remarks the more musical form of the poems gathered in 'May Day and Other Pieces' (1867), but there was no return to the earliest form; the new music was his own. A good many variants from the published lines are given in the notes; also many "rhapsodies," as the editor calls the germinal forms in which the poems were first entertained. Some of these have a keener verve than the completer forms. The original prose forms of many pieces are also given. Those of "Seashore" and "Two Rivers" are extremely interesting. The prose form of "Seashore" is too dithyrambic to be good prose, while still it falls far short of the poem it foretold. It is a strange thing that the prose anticipation of "Days" is not given, for it was hardly less magical than the final achievement, which Emerson conceived to be his best in poetry. A year after writing it (1852) he could not remember how or when he wrote it and had a feeling about it similar to Dr. Holmes's about "The Chambered Nautilus"; "When I wrote that, I did better than I could." Of "The Problem" we are told that it came to him, like the Divinity School Address, without the usual experiments and delays. "No fragments, no trials remain; much fewer verbal changes than is usual appear in the manuscript book of poetry, and not one since the poem saw light in the first number of the *Dial* in July, 1840."

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The note on "Uriel" confirms the faith of many persons that the poem is a daring allegory of Emerson's personal experience; the "young deities" figuring the Cambridge divinity students, the "stern old war-gods" Prof. Andrews Norton; Uriel, Emerson himself. "The poem, when read with the Divinity School Address, and its consequences, in mind, is seen to be an account of that event generalized and sublimed—the announcement of an advance in truth, won not without pain and struggle, to hearers not yet ready, resulting in banishment to the prophet, yet the spoken word sticks like a barbed arrow, or works like a leaven." An interesting particular is the changing of the date of the "Concord Hymn," the one poem of Emerson's to which Matthew Arnold conceded "wholeness of tissue" (sure proof he had not read them all) from 1836 to 1837. Of the "Threnody" we are told the first part, lamenting the lost child, was written soon after his death, and the consolatory part some time later. Beautiful passages are given from letters and journals prefiguring the Ode, but the terrible coldness of the passage in the "Experience" essay on the transiency of the father's sorrow has barred it out. There is evidence that Emerson did himself great injustice in that passage.

The photogravure accompanying the 'Poems' is the most pleasing, though not the most significant presentment we have ever had of Emerson's face. It is now published for the first time, except that it was used upon the programme of the Concord celebration of Emerson's birthday May 25, 1903. It was better printed there than here.

The Golden Trade; or, A Discovery of the River Gambra and the Golden Trade of the Æthiopians. By Richard Jobson, 1623. Now reprinted for the first time. Teignmouth (Eng.): E. E. Speight and R. H. Walpole.

The new series of the "Saracen's Head Library," entitled "The Mary Kingsley Travel Books," opens auspiciously with a reprint of the above rare tract. The author was the commander of an expedition sent out by the "Governour of the Countries of Ginney and Binney," and other adventurers, to explore the River Gambia and to discover, if possible, the source of the gold brought to the west coast of Africa by the "Moores of Barbary." Jobson succeeded in ascending the river several hundred miles, and established friendly relations with the natives, but he learned nothing new about the gold country, except that farther in the interior was a "great Towne, the houses whereof are covered onely with gold." Evidently an intelligent man and a keen observer, he kept a journal which Samuel Purchas read with such interest that he laid "as it were a commande upon" Jobson to write a full account of his travels, "which by publishing may first tend, unto the advancement of God's glory, and next undoubtedly the honor, wealth, and preferment of our owne nation." Purchas himself printed in his "Pilgrims" the main facts of the voyage.

Jobson wrote in such an involved style that he is at times difficult reading, but his purely narrative passages are graphic and apparently truthful. There are few examples of the credulity which characterized many of the early explorers. An exception may possibly be found in his account of the "Babownes" and the "kind of common wealth that is amongst them. . . . Wee have seene in the desert places they use, trees and plants, wound and made up together in that artificiall manner, and wrought together with that thicknes over head, to keepe away the sun, and shade the ground, which hath bin beaten, & smoothed under neath, and all things in the manner and shape of an excellent arbour, which place they have only used, and kept for their dancing and recreation."

He evidently inclines to "the opinion the Spaniard holds of them, and doth not sticke to write it, that they are absolutely a race and kind of people, who in regard they will not bee brought to worke, and live under subjection, refuse to speake." This explanation of the dumbness of apes appears to be the origin of the following passage in one of Rousseau's letters (to Hume, March 29, 1766). The recluse of Wootton tells of his refraining from speaking English in his new surroundings: "C'est à peu près la ruse," he says; "des singes, qui, disent les Nègres, ne veulent pas parler quoiqu' ils le puissent, de peur qu' on ne les fasse travailler." The Abbé Raynal's voluminous redactions might, if one had the patience, prove to be the medium through which Rousseau came in touch with Jobson. A variant, ascribed to the Philippines, is, that the apes are silent in order to escape taxation.

Jobson describes by hearsay a tribe who will not suffer themselves to be seen by the traders because their lower lip is "of that greatnesse, it turnes againe, and covers the greater part of their bosome." Hence the salt and beads they desire are left by the merchant, who on his return finds gold laid by them which, if it is a satisfactory amount, he takes and leaves the goods. Comparatively little space is given to the author's personal experiences, but the larger part of his narrative is concerned with the country, its strange fauna and flora, the various races of people, their manner of living, and religious rites. The most interesting people were the Marybucks or priests of the country, who "acknowledge Mahomet" and are noted for their temperance and truthfulness.

The reprint is edited, without notes, by Charles G. Kingsley, and has woodcut ornamentation (based on West African designs) by R. M. Nance.

Religions of Authority and the Religion of the Spirit. By Auguste Sabatier, Late Dean of the Protestant Faculty of Theology in the University of Paris. Translated by Louise Seymour Houghton. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1904.

M. Sabatier was already a sick man when he finished this book in December, 1900. He would first rest himself with a journey to Palestine, then spend three months revising what he had written. The journey did not come off, nor the revision. In February, 1901, he was taken fatally ill and died the following April. But his orders were peremptory: whatever happened, his book must appear, his colleagues, Ménégoz and Roberty, doing the revision. They have done their work with perhaps too much of pious respect for the mere form in which M. Sabatier left his matter. This is exceedingly diffuse and redundant, especially in Book III. It is certain that, if M. Sabatier had done the revision, it would have been much more thorough. At the best he had a loose and flowing style, but as a piece of writing the present work is far below the level of his 'Outlines of Religion Based on Psychology and History,' the book which secured for its author a sudden reputation in the religious world, and especially among those who, so long as they can retain something of "the form of sound doctrine," do not care much if the substance is a minus quantity.

It is not easy to conceive why M. Sabatier should have been so anxious for the publication of the later book. Presented as a sequel to the former, it adds nothing to the line of thought which ran through that. What was most significant in that has here a weaker presentation. On the other hand, this gains by concreteness and explicitness in the parts assigned to the Religions of Authority. "We do not confute the old theologies," said Renan; "we explain them." So M. Sabatier: "The history of a dogma is its inevitable criticism." "Every system has its immanent logic which impels it toward its point of perfection, and, thus revealing its internal inconsistencies or insufficiencies, impels it no less to dissolution and ruin." An application of this principle to the Roman Catholic and Protestant dogmas of authority covers 250 pages of M. Sabatier's book, and just half as many are devoted to Book III., "The Religion of the Spirit." Hardly could anything be better than the temper in which the Roman Catholic and the Protestant dogmas are treated in the two earlier parts. The doctrine of evolution, in its diffusion through contemporary thought, has done no better service than inheres in the complacency with which historical forms of religion are regarded as inevitable steps in a progress of limitless perdurance. The treatment, here, is not formal or exact, except relatively to M. Sabatier's most characteristic style, but we have everywhere the impression of a man saturated with knowledge of the history which he details.

We have in Book I. first a definition of the dogma of authority and then successive chapters on the Church, Tradition, the Episcopate, the Papacy—never, anywhere, anything given outright, but everywhere that "development" which, confessed by Cardinal Newman, anxious to find some buffer that would soften the jolt of his transition from the Anglican to the Roman Church, has brought upon him the curses of his co-religionists over a wide area, with here and there the blessing of an Abbé Loisy or some kindred spirit. M. Sabatier's tribute to the grandeur of the Papacy at the height of its development does not stint admiration, nor does his appreciation of its salutary functions in the earlier stages of its course. A chapter of searching analysis is devoted to the Infallible Pope, arriving at the conclusion that in resting the dogma of infallibility on the Pope's *ipse dixit* the Papacy discredits him, itself, and the Church together. In a chapter, "The Future of the Papacy," a brilliant forecast of the inevitable conflict between infallibility and science, no sufficient account is taken of the differences of interpretation to which the dogma has already been subjected. Powerful organizations have an instinct of self-preservation that makes short work of formulas at any critical moment, and the

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dogma of infallibility will as surely be a nose of wax in the hands of the papal politicians as our written Constitution is when a new chapter of "destiny" is to be written.

The argument of Book II. is that the infallible authority of the Bible has had as logical a progress to completion and dissolution as the Roman dogma. Necessity was the mother of its invention in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when the Roman claim to infallibility inspired the Protestants to produce "something equally good." M. Sabatier is not superior to that manner of authority which leans assuringly on great names and high examples, and it is possible that he exaggerates the amount of free intellect involved in the beginnings of the Protestant Reformation.

As the positive part of M. Sabatier's exposition, his Book III., "The Religion of the Spirit," should be the most important, but it is actually the least important, because it reproduces his 'Outlines of a Philosophy of Religion' in a less admirable form. For lovers of clear thinking it will be disappointing, since it is extremely vague. Readers of scientific inclination, who have found their account readily enough in the preceding books, will imagine that in this, like foolish Ixion, they have embraced a cloud. The principal weakness is the apparently arbitrary identification of the Religion of the Spirit with Christianity. There is no satisfactory answer to Strauss's objection, "The Absolute does not descend into history; it is against all analogy that the fulness of perfection should be met with at the outset of any evolution whatsoever." It must be confessed that M. Sabatier hastens to denude the founder of Christianity of everything adventitious. His theological, equally with his scientific, opinons were, we are told, the children of his time. Indeed, the attenuation is too absolute. Even the contemporaries of Jesus must have apprehended his spirit through the form of his teachings and his life. We have only the teachings; and the earthen vessels (gospels and epistles) in which the treasure is contained have suffered grievously from the shocks of critical investigation, and much of their contents is dissipated. There does not seem to be enough left (M. Sabatier *judice*) to assure for Jesus that isolated dominance which M Sabatier ascribes to him. But what most disfigures his concluding rhapsody is the contemptuousness of his rejection of orthodox and rationalist alike as having no vital relationship with Christianity whatsoever. It is not easy to distinguish the temper here from that of the traditional dogmatist.

Marks on Old Pewter and Sheffield Plate. By William Redman F.R.G.S. Bradford, Eng. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This little handbook of seventy-six pages, with its somewhat disjointed collection of information, some fair illustrations of groups of vessels and indifferent ones of marks, may be of use to the collectors of pewter who have not access to Massé's valuable work on 'Pewter Plate,' lately reviewed in these columns; and to collectors of Sheffield plate for the information as to its mode of manufacture, taken from a paper read before a Sheffield society, in 1889, by its President, A. T. Watson, who was also Assay Master to the Sheffield Hall.

As the author truly says, in his preface, "While much has been written concerning Gold and Silver Plate, China, etc., Pewter has been almost altogether neglected. There is good reason why, we have no doubt. There are no hall marks and date letters on Pewter, such as we find on Silver Plate." Beginning with a chapter of "General Remarks" on the trade in England and Scotland, the cause of the almost total extinction of the manufacture of pewter is traced to the fact that

"since 1844; among the ordinary better-class people, pewter has been replaced by earthenware, china, glass, enamelled and japanned iron, block (blocked) tin, and other cheap and handy utensils. Then came the discovery of more suitable silver and other alloys, such as white metal, Britannia metal, nickel silver, German silver, and electro-plated wares which are in appearance equal to silver. These causes together sufficed to banish pewter from our households, except in a few instances, and, until lately, few ventured to let them see the light of day, while the majority had long since sent them to the melting-pot as useless lumber."

Extracts from the History of the Pewterers' Company, by Charles Welch, are followed by a "Description of the Illustrations," "Odd Bits about Pewter," "Hints to Collectors," "Prices," "How to Clean," "Dating Pewter Ware," and a reference, with some of the illustrations, to J. Starkie Gardiner's interesting paper read before the Society of Arts, London, and published in full in the *Journal*, June 1, 1894. The particulars relating to the five remaining touch-plates of the Pewterers' Company are unreliable. Few would recognize the makers, John Baskerville, Thomas Scattergood, and Richard Dyer, in "John Baskerusle," "Thomas Attergood," and "Richard Due." An abridged Summary of Pewter Pieces, taken from Trollope's 'Church Plate in Leicestershire,' is very misleading. In the original, where the vessels are dated they are noted as "inscribed"; the majority, however, are referred to as "*circa*" such a date. Mr. Redman has omitted these important points: the dates are given as fixed. The remainder of the book is devoted to Old Sheffield Plate, an account of the trade in which is extracted from Hunter's 'History of Hallamshire.' A directory of the manufacturers of the latter half of the eighteenth century, with a list of their wares, is followed by paragraphs on counterfeiting, testing, etc., with illustrations of a few plate-marks.

One hint to collectors is of value. For the first sixty years after the discovery of the process (1742-1802), the copper was plated on one side only. In later years (1803-1850, when, on the introduction of electro-plating, the trade became almost extinct), it was found possible to coat the copper on both sides. From this it will be seen that most of the Sheffield Plate was made during fifty years. There is an inadequate general index.

Mediæval England. By Mary Bateson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1904.

This work differs from most of its companions in the "Story of the Nations" series by excluding the element of political narrative. A chronological table of more than twenty pages in length is published at the close of the volume, but the text itself is wholly unmarked by anything which can be called annals. "My object," says the author, "has been to keep social rather than political facts in view, and throughout to supply by illustration from contemporary accounts some of the characteristic detail which is apt to be crowded out in political histories." The fulfilment of this idea gives us a most instructive and entertaining book on the life of England during the feudal period—a book wherein the results of erudition are brought together with great skill for the benefit of those who cannot pretend to study the subject at first hand.

Miss Bateson begins with the Norman conquest and ends with the Black Death. Her first subdivision of this period closes at the death of Stephen, and her third opens at the middle of the thirteenth century. The first part she styles "Norman Feudalism"; the second, "The Lawyers' Feudalism"; and the third, "Decadent Feudalism." But if throughout she makes the social activities of mediæval England centre in feudal institutions, she does not narrow feudalism to the relations of lord and vassal. Those who have read her excellent articles and notes in the *English Historical Review* need not have their attention called to her interest in municipal history. The development of town life is firmly outlined here, and the fortunes of the villein class are also described at length. Miss Bateson, like all who are not blinded by ignorance or prejudice, insists upon the fact of mediæval civilization, and, better than mere generalization, she illustrates it by examples of the most tangible kind. The chapters on the Church are particularly good, and there are separate studies of the part which was taken by the clergy in education.

During recent years our knowledge of mediæval life in England has been increased much more by the examination of legal and official documents, pay rolls, account books, etc., than by the study of more purely literary materials. Miss Bateson is conversant with the best technical literature of our day in so far as it touches upon her main subject, or indeed upon the minor subjects which she is led to consider. In a larger work we might have desired a more exhaustive treatment of difficult questions, like that of population, but we have observed no essential topic which fails to receive its proper share of attention. The best feature of the work is its control of striking and appropriate detail. Each chapter is a finished essay, which will be read with genuine pleasure by those who have mastered the elementary facts of English history. For beginners this book may possibly be too advanced; but for all who are not beginners or specialists, it possesses uncommon uses and attractions. The illustrations have been chosen with much judgment and are well reproduced.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Davenport, Willard G. The Bible and the Church. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co. 50 cents net.

English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited from Professor Child's collection by Helen Child Sargent and George Lyman Kittredge. (Cambridge edition.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.

Flanders, Henry. An Exposition of the Constitution of the United States. Fifth ed., revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.

Gibb, E. J. W. A History of Ottoman Poetry. Vol. III. London: Luzac & Co.

Horton, Robert F. St. John. (Verse.) E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents net.

Jackson, E. L. St. Helena. London and New York: Ward, Lock & Co., Ltd.

Münsterberg, Hugo. Die Amerikaner. Vol 2. Berlin: E. S. Mittler & Sohn; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Quick, Herbert. Aladdin & Co.: A Romance of Yankee Magic. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.

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